The Nation.

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The Week.

THE United States Supreme Court in the *Sayward* case has declined to consider the question of national jurisdiction in Bering Sea outside the three-mile limit. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that the *Sayward* case had not had a great influence in settling the dispute with Great Britain. It was a noteworthy fact that the first real steps toward arbitration were taken immediately after the *Sayward* petition was presented to the Court. Mr. Blaine had informed Lord Salisbury what the President would consider the points available for arbitration without, however, committing himself to arbitration. When the *Sayward* case came up, a purpose was manifested for the first time of really settling the question in a rational and decent way, instead of prolonging the wind-bag dispute till the next Presidential election. When the case came to argument, the Attorney-General betrayed his anxiety by announcing in open court that the terms of arbitration had been agreed upon. He offered this fact as a reason why the Court should not decide the question of jurisdiction over the waters of Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit. The Court was evidently glad to avoid that question, but if the position of affairs had been the same now that it was when the petition was filed, the decision would perhaps have been commensurate with the actual emergency.

The decisions of the Supreme Court in the Custom-house cases involving the validity of the McKinley Tariff Act, could hardly have been different from what they are without throwing the Government into confusion and creating embarrassments of the most serious character for the past, the present, and the future. The main point decided is that the invalidity of one part of a revenue act does not invalidate the whole act. When this principle was settled, the objections to the act based upon the reciprocity clause, the omitted tobacco sections, and the sugar bounty really disappeared. Yet the Court considered the two former objections separately. It holds that the reciprocity clause did not put legislative power in the hands of the President, but merely the power to ascertain a fact the determination of which should put the law in operation. The point here is a very fine one, namely, whether the President is to ascertain a fact, or to settle his own convictions and state of mind regarding a certain concatenation of facts. Naturally the Court would, in so narrow a dispute, decide in the way that would produce the least embarrassment. Regarding the two sections that were passed by Congress (as the journals show), but were omitted from the enrolled act, the Court holds that the best evidence for the courts of what was passed by Congress is the act itself, and that it is not competent under existing laws to introduce the journals to contradict the act itself. Of course, Congress can establish a different system of interpretation if it chooses. In the Ballin-Joseph case, where the Special Worsted Act was called in question, the Court holds that the rule adopted by the Fifty-first Congress for "counting a quorum" was within the competency of Congress, and that a law passed in that way will *not* be declared unconstitutional for that reason only. The propriety of such a rule is not passed upon by the Court, and obviously could not be. In the same case the Court has reversed the decision of the court below, which held that the Worsted Act had not changed the duties on worsteds, but had changed the classification. It is decided now that the change of classification changed the duties *ipso facto*.

Chairman Springer's report on the wool and woollens tariff, although late in coming, is a strong document, and, if followed by a vigorous debate, will help to put the Democratic party on its feet again. That bewildered organization has been wandering hither and thither in an aimless way ever since the election of Speaker Crisp. It has been in the critical situation and desperate plight of not knowing what it wanted. In all cases where a political party does not know what it wants, the country properly says, "Then we don't want you." The question now is whether Chairman Springer and his Committee can make sufficient stir to convince the people that the party wants tariff reform, and intends to fight for it till it gets it. The wool tariff is a good place to begin. There never was any reason for putting a tax on wool. Not even the canons of protection furnish a decent pretext for it. Wool-growing needs to be let alone, and needs nothing else. This is proved by our experience and by that of Great Britain. Wool was practically on the free list from 1857 till 1863, and the business was prosperous. It began to decline when the high tariff of 1867 was adopted, and continued to decline until the free-grazing domain of the Western Territories was made accessible by railroads. In Ohio, the only State that is rabid on the subject of the wool tariff, the number of sheep has declined from 6,730,000 in 1868 to 4,061,000 in 1891. The price of domestic wool has fallen also, and in a still greater ratio, yet the pagans of Ohio are demanding a prohibitory tariff, and are telling us that carpets are a luxury, and that people who buy them ought to pay whatever price it costs to make them of American wool.

Now as to woollen goods, it should be borne in mind that the tariff of 1883 was satisfactory to the manufacturers except as to worsteds. No woollen-manufacturer would have thought of disturbing that tariff had not the pagans come forward with their demand for higher duties on wool. Consequently, to gauge the proposed bill of the Committee of Ways and Means we must take for comparison the tariff of 1883, and ask ourselves what would have been fair and equitable if the McKinley Bill had never existed, and if, instead of that, Congress had repealed all duties on wool. Tested in this way, the bill now proposed will be found to be not only fair, but generous to the manufacturers, and we venture to predict that when the debate comes on, Gen. Stevens, who is the largest individual woollen-manufacturer in the United States, and who is a member of the Committee making this report, will put to shame the organs of protection that have been whining for a month past over what they call the "ruthless cut" at their industry. The truth is, that no tariff reform will ever be accomplished with their consent. If we have to wait till they give the word, the sounding of the last trump will find us under an advancing stage of McKinleyism. The report of the Committee shows that these people declared in writing in 1867 that all the protection they wanted was 25 per cent. net. This bill gives them 35 per cent. net, and now they call it a "ruthless cut." We hope that all the tariff-reformers in Congress will lend a hand to carry this measure through.

Senator Vest's speech on reciprocity is to be welcomed, if for nothing else than the fact that it marks the willingness of at least one Democrat to resume the war upon the McKinley tariff. The managers of the Democratic party at Washington have been so busy bargaining and intriguing to get away from the man who made the tariff issue for them, that they have been so many dumb dogs thus far in the session. They know that as soon as any one opens his mouth to attack McKinley he thereby advocates Cleveland, and hence they have been keeping back their tariff bills to the latest possible moment. Senator Vest has broken the ignoble silence, and his example will give courage to members of the House in the tariff debates. He was perfectly right, too, in saying that the only defence of the McKinley Bill which the Republicans have is to point to that reciprocity clause of it which has, in so far, made the bill inoperative and void. Nor is there any dodging the point he made that the way to get real recipro-

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city, the way to make a treaty which will really favor agricultural exports, is to make a treaty with the largest consumers of our agricultural exports. The Republican party could easily give our farmers a better price (because a more active demand) for their staple products in Europe, and at the same time give them cheaper clothing and other necessaries of life—all by means of commercial treaties with France and Germany and Austria. But that, of course, would be a surrender of those precious privileges of being swindled which no true American can part with without tears.

There was an important debate in the Commonwealth Club on Friday evening on the silver question. The first speaker was Mr. Louis R. Ehrich of Colorado Springs, whose recent addresses to the people of his city and State have been so highly commended, and have won for him so much reputation. Mr. Ehrich put the silver situation before his hearers in an illuminating way. He said that the decline in the price of silver was due in large part to the unnatural and artificial purchases of the United States Government. "If a crank should declare his intention," said Mr. Ehrich, "to buy $100,000 worth of Pears's soap every year and put it away, and should carry his intention into effect, the first and immediate result would be to advance the price because the demand in the market would be a little in excess of the previous supply. But the supply would soon overtake the demand, and then a contrary result would be observed. The buyers of soap would begin to be afraid of the accumulating stock in the warehouse of this crank. They would be afraid that he would change his mind and stop buying, and perhaps sell some of his accumulations. They would know that he couldn't go on buying for ever. The larger his hoard became, the more apprehensive they would be, and the more they would curtail their own purchases. So the market would be shorn of its bona-fide purchasers while this crank was giving it an artificial support. The United States, the crank among nations, has been playing the same perilous game with the silver market. It has frightened the other nations by these artificial purchases and this towering accumulation, so that all who can dispense with silver are doing so, and all are cutting down their purchases to the minimum." This diagnosis will be recognized by every financier who has knowledge of what is going on in Europe. Austria has been driven toward the gold basis by sheer terror of the American accumulation of silver. To all silver-standard countries, including India, this is as a leaning tower, liable to fall upon them at any moment. Austria will pawn everything she has in the world in order to avert that danger, and it is not unlikely that she will extract from us the gold necessary to her deliverance from it.

That the stagnant condition of our money market has some connection with the silver question is the opinion of nearly everybody who is able to form an opinion on the subject. The last London *Economist* sums up the situation thus:

"A point of considerable importance in considering the probable future of the market is that there appears to be some probability of a renewal of the flow of gold hither from the United States. It is to that, at all events, that the present monetary policy of the States is tending. Although there is a superabundance of currency, and the banks are holding unprecedentedly large deposits, yet the Government is compelled to keep adding steadily to the superfluity by the issue of nearly £1,000,000 of Treasury notes each month in payment for its purchase of silver. The natural result of that is to drive out the portion of the currency which is of use outside of as well as in the country—viz., the gold currency. Any immediate relief which the European markets may obtain in this way is, however, almost certain to be realized at the cost of subsequent trouble. The fear that the States are drifting into monetary difficulties has already disorganized the silver market, which is kept in a chronic state of apprehension lest the Treasury should be compelled to dispose of a portion of the enormous stock of the metal it has accumulated. That is the root cause of the extreme weakness of the silver market, and it is a menace also to the stability of the money market, since it is impossible to say to what devices the United States Treasury may be forced to have recourse in its efforts to maintain the parity between gold and silver."

"The root cause of the extreme weakness of the silver market" is exactly what the *Economist* points out. All the world knows that the Treasury purchase of silver must stop some time. Many people believe that when buying ends, selling will begin. In either case silver will fall ten to twenty points, and not even free coinage would stop or hinder it. Free coinage would put an end to Government purchases and leave silver to sell for what it is worth in the world's markets. It would enable the holders of silver to pay their preëxisting debts in a debased metal, but beyond such temporary cheating it would do them no good, for they could not buy a pound, a gallon, or a yard of any kind of property for future delivery except at the gold value thereof.

Secretary Noble's testimony before the Pension Bureau Investigating Committee on Friday left no doubt as to the full truth of one of the worst of the many scandals charged against Gen. Raum's management. The charge was that Gen. Raum's son had taken money as a reward for using his influence to secure an appointment in the Bureau, and in reference to this Mr. Noble said:

"The case against young Raum was very strong, for it was shown conclusively that he had taken money in consideration of securing Smith's promotion. It has never been my practice in the office to wait very long under such circumstances, and I immediately inquired for further information. I investigated the facts, and, as he was the son of the Commissioner, I accepted his resignation, and gave him time to find something else to do. I treated him as moderately as I thought the circumstances required on account of his relationship to the Commissioner, but with promptness."

When Mr. Noble was asked if he remembered the affidavits of two other Bureau employees to the effect that young Raum had demanded money of them, promising promotion in return, he replied that he could not give details, but would look the matter up. That young Raum, after having been proved guilty of one instance of blackmail, should have been permitted to resign and escape all punishment, was itself a scandal of the first magnitude, for which the responsibility rests mainly upon the President.

The following observations about the extraordinary situation of affairs at Albany are made by the *World*, which is doing its best to make it appear that the Hill-Tammany-McLaughlin-Murphy gang constitute the Democratic party for the State of New York:

"The events at Albany during the past week show the existence of a dangerous power in the hands of *four* men. It is evident from these proceedings that, as matters now stand, any legislation desired and agreed upon by Lieut.-Gov. Sheehan, Edward Murphy, jr., Richard Croker, and Hugh McLaughlin, will pass, and that any measure opposed by these men will fail. These men are essentially party bosses. They practise politics for a living—and something more—to themselves and their followers. Neither separately nor together do these men represent the leadership of intellectual and moral forces, devoted to the success of principles and the furtherance of ideas which alone make politics noble and government beneficent."

But why does the *World* not put Hill's name with the others? He is their boss, as they are the bosses of the parts of the machine which he has organized. They stand for him and his methods. They worked under his orders to pack his Convention and his delegation to the National Convention. They are working under his orders now in passing the "jobs" which the *World* is denouncing, for the main object of those "jobs" is to supply money to be used in the Hill-Croker-McLaughlin-Murphy scheme for securing the Democratic nomination for the Presidency. Those jobs are designed to enable Hill to put his hand into the public treasury to get money for campaign purposes, in the same manner that he put it in in 1886, when he took $15,000 from the $30,000 obtained on a swindling aqueduct contract. Are these "jobs" any worse than the theft of the Senate?

The *Iowa State Register*, which still assumes to be the chief organ of the Republican party in its State, although Mr. J. S. Clarkson is no longer its editor, is out with an appeal that the Iowa delegation to the Republican National Convention "be sent to Minneapolis under instructions to cast Iowa's vote solid for the great party leader whose matchless ability as Secretary of State has made the whole Administration popular at home and throughout the world." The *Register* concedes that "President Harrison has proved himself by many titles to be great," but it insists that he "is not great enough," and that the party should take "the strongest man," who is, of course, James G. Blaine. It holds that "he will poll 10,000 more votes in Iowa than any other man that can

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be nominated—a gain of 10,000 for the Republicans and a loss of an equal number for the opposing candidates—and Blaine will poll about that number of votes more than any other man, in proportion to the population, in all other States." The best comment on this outburst is found in certain figures regarding the last three Presidential elections in Iowa contained in the *Tribune Almanac*, which we subjoin:

	Rep. Vote.	Opposit'n	Rep. Maj.
1880	183,927	139,138	44,789
1884	197,089	178,788	18,301
1888	211,958	192,532	19,426

It will be seen that Blaine had only 18,301 majority in Iowa in 1884, although Garfield had received 44,789 in 1880, and that even the man who "is not great enough" got a decidedly larger majority in 1888 than "the strongest man" could command in 1884.

One of the indirect effects of the expulsion of the Jews from Russia is the revival of the agitation in England for laws restricting or at least regulating immigration. This agitation attained considerable proportions after the influx of Polish and German Jews in 1881 and 1882, and again in 1884, when Bismarck began his Jew-baiting; but it subsided with subsiding immigration, so that in 1889 Charles Booth wrote: "Whatever may have been the cause for alarm presented by the immigration of the Jew, it is all over now—at least for the present." He was wise to add the last modifying clause, as the immigration has been renewed in the past year and a half in a way to excite great uneasiness. Just how many immigrants have entered England during that time it is impossible to say. A curious anomaly in English statistics is the lack of any adequate system of numbering immigrants. Masters of vessels are required to report the number of aliens on board their ships on entering an English port, and to state how many are en route to America or other countries; the inference being that those not so reported intend to become residents of England. Besides the evident fallibility of such an inference, the admitted fact has to be taken into account that the reports of the masters are drawn up in a very slovenly manner; they often enumerate only the heads of families, and in other respects leave much to be desired as an accurate or trustworthy register of immigration. Yet even these imperfect returns make it clear to Mr. Giffen that there was a "notable increase" in immigration during 1890 and 1891. Taking them, together with Board of Trade reports and testimony gathered from the administrators of the Poor Law and the Boards of Jewish Guardians, a competent writer, Mr. W. H. Wilkins, concludes that between 85,000 and 100,000 immigrants became residents of England in 1891, a very large proportion of whom were destitute.

In view of our own rigid legislation on the subject of pauper immigration, and of the similar measures which have been enacted by the great English colonies—Canada, Victoria, Tasmania—the backwardness of England in the matter appears surprising. The only Alien Act now in force is that of William IV., and this simply relates to the reporting of aliens to customs officers by ship-captains. The result is, that the only action which England can now take to protect herself from pauper immigrants, is the publishing in foreign newspapers circulating among the class from which such immigrants come of notices like the following:

"Her Britannic Majesty's Consul-General at —— has been instructed to cause it to be made public that destitute persons intending to emigrate to Great Britain to seek employment are likely to be disappointed on arrival, the prospects of obtaining employment being very limited."

England's reluctance to do anything which might look like a retreat from her traditional position as a home of the oppressed is highly creditable, but probably will not operate much longer to prevent the passage of some law protecting herself against a pauper invasion. The labor unions are taking the matter up, no less than forty-three different organizations having passed resolutions calling for the restriction of immigration.

The Emperor William, in his speech at the Brandenburg banquet, virtually says to the German people: "You must not only do as I tell you, but you must think as I tell you." This crazy saying is addressed to forty millions of the most intelligent people on earth, including leaders of the world's thought in many departments of philosophy, literature, and science. To these men and all others he says that it has unfortunately become the fashion to criticise every step taken by the Government, so that many persons have become imbued with the idea that the country is the most unhappy and the worst governed in the world. He advises all such critics to take themselves out of the country at once. If they do not go, he does not tell what may happen, except that he intends to have his own way. All this sounds like an echo of the seventeenth century, but it should be remembered that these and similar wild utterances come from a man who is suffering from a disease which undoubtedly affects his mind. It is known that in the last week in January one of the most distinguished specialists in Germany, Prof. Madelung of the University of Bonn, was summoned to Berlin to study the Emperor's case. Alarming reports of his grave fears for the patient leaked out through the professional and official reserve which was naturally maintained on all hands. There appears to be little doubt that the Emperor suffers increasingly frequent seizures of excruciating pains in the head, or that his medical attendants are apprehensive of serious brain complications. The language which he holds is certainly much like that of incipient mania, though he would be a rash man who would undertake to discriminate, on all occasions, between a man who is merely an egregious fool and one who is an out-and-out lunatic.

Official and parliamentary circles in Berlin are much wrought up over a sweeping attack upon the methods of naval administration, made by Capt. Stenzel in a pamphlet lately published. He points to the expenditure of $110,000,000 upon the navy during the past ten years, and then asserts that the fleet has been neither augmented nor improved by that vast outlay. Some of the vessels constructed are so unwieldy that they cannot be manœuvred at all, he says, and he recalls the fact that the cruiser *Leipzig* had recently to be towed from Yokohama to San Francisco, not being able to make the passage herself, owing to badly planned and built engines. To the same cause was due the great delay of the German squadron in reaching Chilian waters during the civil war. Capt. Stenzel lays the blame of the whole upon the bad organization of the Navy Department of the Government, which he urges should be completely made over if Germany is to be in condition to fight by sea as well as land in a future war. His pamphlet is but a sharp and open presentation of what has long been hinted by various Germans in public life; and, though it is open to the suspicion of exaggeration, and of being timed so as to get a big appropriation from the Reichstag, it seems to expose a really weak spot in German bureaucratic government.

About the only tangible public property that the Argentine Republic can lay its hands upon in these days, when it is gathering together what it can out of the wreck, is its railway system and its harbor works. Both might be regarded as sound public investments, were it not that so many of the millions expended upon them stuck to the fingers of corrupt officials and favored contractors. A recent debate in Congress brought out the fact that the Buenos Ayres port has already cost something like $35,000,000, though it is not yet nearly done. The absurd extravagance of such an outlay is seen by comparison with the very similar work done at Hamburg. At that port, where one third more shipping is handled than at Buenos Ayres, the channel was deepened and quays built for one-twelfth of what has so far been spent at the capital of the Argentine Republic. Another wild scheme of the flush times was the building of the La Plata harbor, only a few miles from Buenos Ayres, where President Roca proposed to create a second Chicago. Fully $10,000,000 was devoted to building that harbor, yet it is scarcely used to-day, the total duties and charges collected there during 1891 being only about $365,000.

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POWER OF THE INDEPENDENT VOTE.

CONGRESSMAN BRECKINRIDGE of Kentucky has an article in the *North American Review* which Democrats who despise independent votes, and think their party has no need of them in a Presidential campaign, will do well to read. He is writing as to the issues which will be decisive in the next campaign, and, after beginning with the suggestive remark, "Assuming that the Democratic party has not already thrown away the Presidency," he goes on to say:

"In each Presidential contest there must be some leading issue or issues; and to select wisely and skilfully the issue to be made pre-eminent in a particular canvass is becoming more important because of the increase of those troublesome voters upon whom party ties sit lightly, but who reserve to themselves the privilege to vote as they please. And it is not exaggerating the importance of this increasing class of voters to say that they have much to do with the formation of issues in a given canvass. They hold the balance of power."

The main issue in the approaching canvass will be the tariff, he says, and the particular form in which it will be presented "will depend upon the action of the present House, and largely upon the past history and present views of the candidates selected by the Democratic party, and somewhat upon the platform adopted by our Convention." He warns the leaders of both parties, especially those who control the party machinery, that the "people understand this question, are in earnest about it, and cannot be fooled by careful but ambiguous declarations in platforms, or speeches in obscure rhetorical and oracular phrases," adding:

"For two months the country has been in a condition of expectancy; thousands of independent voters in a state of uncertainty. This will not continue long, and that party will win which soonest impresses upon the country that it is sincere and will follow its convictions to their logical results."

Every observer of political sentiment during the past few weeks knows how true that statement is—knows also that the state of uncertainty with very many independent voters is approaching a state of decision against the Democratic party. The do-nothing policy in the House, the seat-stealing and jobbery at Albany, the Hill Convention and Hill delegation, are filling thousands of independent voters with such disgust for the Democratic party that nothing, except the best of behavior by that party in the near future, can win them back. Mr. Breckinridge points out that these voters have no party ties to bind them. "They care but little," he says, "as to the party which holds power, and nothing as to the persons who fill offices, but much as to the success of views which they hold to be superior to party affiliations." All that is true, and when Mr. Breckinridge says that the Democratic party needs the aid of these voters in order to win, he might have gone further and said that it needs also the support of the independent newspapers, daily and weekly, in the prosecution of its campaign. Think, for example, of trying to carry the country for a Democratic candidate with all the illustrated newspapers arrayed in solid mass against him. How are the independent voters, whose votes "hold the balance of power," according to Mr. Breckinridge, who is a first-rate Democratic authority, to be persuaded to support the Democratic cause if all the independent newspapers are arguing against it?

The most foolish mistake which the "regular" politicians make is in despising the independent vote because it is small. It does not need to be large to decide an election in this State. Ten thousand independents make a change of 20,000 votes in the result, and even a Hill-Tammany man will be forced to admit that there are as many as that in this State. In a national election, which always calls out in New York State a much larger Republican vote than ever appears in a State election, the loss of 10,000 votes to the Democratic party would mean defeat in this State. Instead of only 10,000, however, there are from 50,000 to 100,000 such voters in the State, as the figures of State and national elections since the war conclusively demonstrate. There are more of them in this State to-day than ever before, and the same thing is true of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and in fact every Northern State. Many of them parted company with the Republican party in 1884 because of Mr. Blaine's nomination, and many more of them have been shaken in their allegiance to the same party because of the McKinley tariff abomination. All of them, however, would go back to it instantly were the Democrats to make such a nomination as that of Hill, or Gorman, or any candidate whose position on the money question is doubtful.

In addition to these Republican Independents, there are in New York State many voters of Democratic affiliations who are to-day in open disgust, if not in open revolt, with their party because of the Hill-Tammany-McLaughlin-Murphy domination. If any one doubts that, let him look at the town elections and see for himself. In 1890, on the tariff issue squarely and honestly put, the Democrats carried this State in the Congressional elections by an aggregate majority of 75,000. In 1891 they carried it again, with the aid of many tariff-reform and independent voters whom Mr. Cleveland's personal leadership brought to Mr. Flower's support, by a majority of 47,000. In the town elections of this winter, there has been a complete revolution, and the Democrats have lost more than 30 per cent. of the strength which they showed in the same elections of a year ago. That is sufficient evidence that a large percentage of the regular Democratic voters is dissatisfied with the present policy of managing the party as if it were an association of brigands.

Mr. Breckinridge, like every other politician worthy of the name, recognizes the fact that in every campaign each party seeks to win success by attracting to its support the voters who are not "regular." The "regulars" of both parties are never appealed to: they are sure to vote with their party under any conditions; but no politician claims that either party has enough of such voters to enable it to carry an election. In fact, if there were enough of them, there would be no necessity for making a campaign. All the arguments in speeches and documents, all the mass-meetings of a campaign, are designed, not to influence the regular voters, but to persuade the undecided and doubtful voters. That is admission by the professional politicians themselves that the doubtful voters constitute the deciding force in the election. Yet the Hill-Tammany proposition is to drive the entire body of these voters to the opposite party before beginning the campaign!

THE BAILIWICK OF THE BAR ASSOCIATION.

IN an interview with Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, in the *Times* of February 24, he said, if correctly reported, that "the Bar Association of this city had no jurisdiction over Justice Maynard, and could prefer no charges against him; that he did not live in New York, and was not a member of the Association; that the Committee on Grievances [of the Association] was instituted for two purposes: to prefer charges against members of the Association, and to prefer charges against lawyers not members of the Society, but within its bailiwick, with the view of bringing them before the General Term of the Supreme Court for disbarment."

Now, if we remember rightly, it was the Bar Association which set on foot and prosecuted to conviction the impeachment of Judge Barnard in 1870. It is true that Barnard and Cardozo were both Judges of the Supreme Court in this district, and, therefore, strictly speaking, within the bailiwick of the Bar Association; and it may be, therefore, that the Bar Association would be within its right in leaving to the bar of other districts the duty of impeaching judges guilty of misconduct in office in such districts. But the jurisdiction of the Court of Appeals covers the whole State. Its decisions settle the law, without further recourse, for the whole State. One of these has just deprived the city of New York of one of the most valuable public bequests ever made. There is hardly any case of importance involving life, liberty, or property which does not go up to it for final judgment. The judges of the Court are therefore within the bailiwick of all the bars and all the bar associations of all the judicial districts. Every lawyer of the State of New York and every lawyer's client, as well as the public at large, have a deep interest in the composition of the Court and in the fitness and good behavior of its judges. It was largely through the exertions of the bar that the amended judiciary article lengthening the terms of the judges was submitted to the people and

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passed in 1869, and it has been owing largely to the influence of the bar that both the great political parties have, during the last twenty years, concurred to a very great extent in ceasing to treat seats on the bench of the Court of Appeals as simply party spoils. In fact, if the bar got into the way of considering the character of the highest court as no concern of theirs, where should we be? What other body or person is competent to pass on the fitness of the judges? Of what other body or person are lawyers willing for one moment to admit the competency as critics of the judges? Certainly not the newspapers, for lawyers treat press comments on legal decisions with ridicule and contempt.

The special function of the "Committee on Grievances" of the Association is of no great consequence in a crisis like the present one, in view of the fact that among the "objects" of the Bar Association, as defined in its Constitution, are "to maintain the honor and dignity of the profession of the law, and to increase its usefulness in promoting the due administration of justice." It does not require any straining of language to conclude that the appearance on the bench of the highest court of the State of a judge accused, in a judicial proceeding, of grand larceny in the second degree, committed in order to aid in the perpetration of an election fraud, seriously touches "the honor and dignity of the profession of the law." Nor can any man be very far astray who holds that such an appointment does seriously impair "the usefulness of the profession of the law," and seriously interfere with "the due administration of justice."

Of course, it may be said, and probably will be said, that Judge Maynard's offence having been committed, if committed at all, before he became a judge of the Court of Appeals, it affords no opening for an attack on him as a judge; that the real grievance to be assailed is the abuse of the appointing power committed by Gov. Flower. But this is really a distinction without a difference. It is, and we trust always will be, the presumption of both lawyers and laymen in all civilized countries, that a man who bears the burden of an unanswered criminal charge is, *ipso facto*, unfit for a high, or indeed any, judicial office. It makes no difference how he gets the office as long as the accusation is unrefuted. Of his failure to answer it every citizen and every lawyer is bound to take notice.

We have tried, before making these remarks, to get hold of some of the addresses made by eminent lawyers at the opening of great gatherings of the legal profession in this and other States, and to the graduating classes of law schools. It is in these discourses that one finds the duties of the bar towards the community set forth with most fulness and solemnity. We have, however, not had time enough for a successful search. We may return to these documents hereafter. But we venture to affirm, without being able to quote at this moment, that they lay on the lawyer a burden of responsibility with regard to *everything* that concerns the life, liberty, and happiness of the citizen, which any profession might be proud to bear, but with which no other profession is honored. They confine this responsibility within no "bailiwicks" or districts. They make it as broad as the State, and, in some of its aspects, as broad as the civilized world. Wherever there is a fountain of justice they put lawyers on guard over it, to see that, no matter in what direction it may flow, it shall not be defiled on any pretext whatsoever.

From this point of view it looks as if the Bar Association, even if it cannot impeach Judge Maynard, ought not to allow it to go down to posterity in legal annals, that an appointment like Judge Maynard's was made in this State in the year 1892 without one word of protest from the proper and self-appointed guardians of "the dignity and honor of the profession of the law." And then there is a Committee on "Judicial Nominations." Surely the functions of this Committee extend also to judicial appointments. Is there another nice distinction here?

OLD-AGE PENSIONS IN ENGLAND.

THE remark attributed to Sir William Vernon Harcourt, "We are all Socialists now," finds fresh illustration in the scheme which Mr. Chamberlain, with the backing of the National Provident League and many members of the clergy, is seriously urging upon Parliament and the country for the pensioning of all workingmen when they reach the age of sixty-five. In its original form his plan was a pretty close copy of the German model—that is, the workingman himself, his employer, and the State, were each to contribute in equal proportions to a fund out of which insurance against sickness and pensions in old age could be paid, the whole process to be made compulsory by law. But there was needed only a little public discussion to make it evident that some modifications would be necessary. First the sick-pay part of the scheme was dropped; then it was made voluntary instead of obligatory upon laboring men, and employers were freed from the necessity of contributing to the reserve fund. As nearly as can be gathered from Mr. Chamberlain's reserved intimations, the final form restricts the application of the plan to Scotland, for the present, and provides that if a workingman deposits £5 with the Government before he is twenty-five, the latter will add £15, so that the accumulations would suffice to pay a pension of five shillings a week after the age of sixty-five.

As the intention is evidently more to abolish old-age pauperism than merely to promote habits of thrift, the question at once becomes pertinent to how great an extent old-age pauperism exists under the present conditions. It has been assumed, (and, indeed, this is the basis of the whole movement), that it exists to an appalling extent. A frequently repeated statement of Canon Blackley, the head of the National Provident League, is that "one in every two of the wage-earning classes who pass the age of sixty-five dies as a pauper." Others have put it that "45 per cent. of *all persons* in England who reach the age of sixty years die as paupers." Mr. Charles Booth puts the proportion of paupers in the total population above sixty-five at 38 per cent., but he admits that his figures are misleadingly high, since he has to class as a "pauper" every one who has received any parish assistance whatever. This whole aspect of the case has just been rigorously investigated by Mr. J. F. Wilkinson. He shows how loose and exaggerated the statistics quoted are, proves that there has been a steady decrease in pauperism as a whole in the past thirty years—it was 4.7 per cent. of the population in 1859, and but 2.8 in 1889—and makes it probable that the whole number of paupers above sixty-five is now no more than 350,000 at the very highest. Thus the extent of the evil which it is proposed to remedy has been very greatly magnified at the start.

Apart from this preliminary oversight, the impracticability and impotence of the measure advocated by Mr. Chamberlain are at once apparent. The deposit of £5 or £10, as may be agreed upon, is to be entirely voluntary. Now, the very class of people who are most likely to turn out paupers at sixty-five are either naturally improvident, so that they will not make their deposit, or are so close to starvation even in youth that they cannot. On the other hand, those forehanded workmen who have savings, already enjoy opportunities for placing them where they will serve both as insurance against sickness and a pension after working days are over. They have the Post-office system of annuities, and, above all, they have their own Friendly Societies. These societies have now a membership of about 4,500,000, and funds amounting to no less than £20,000,000.

It is precisely from these organizations that the most effective opposition to Mr. Chamberlain's plan has come. They stand for the principles of thrift and self-help and coöperation, and have let it be clearly known that no bill can go through Parliament which will interfere with the conduct and progress of their affairs. The head of the Foresters said in a recent address: "Determined opposition should be offered to preference or patronage being given to any State fund." At the same meeting the following resolution received the votes of all the 721 delegates present:

> "The question of superannuation has also come to the fore from the interest lately evinced in the subject by the Right Honorable Joseph Chamberlain, M.P.; but it should be well understood that State aid means State interference, and we are of opinion that no such thing will be tolerated by members of Friendly Societies."

In the same tenor were the remarks of

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the Master of the Manchester Unity at the annual meeting of that great society:

"We have no desire to see set up another great Government Department, with its army of officials, to further tax the community under the plausible profession of benefits to the aged."

Mr. Chamberlain has endeavored to meet the objections of these organizations of workingmen. At their behest he has abandoned the compulsory character of the measure as originally conceived, and has attempted to annex their own pension system to his Government plan. But to do the latter, it would be necessary to have a Government inspection of the affairs of the Friendly Societies, and that they would never assent to. In fact, his scheme is now so cut down from its first magnificent proportions that it has little to recommend it except its sentimental aspect. Mr. Morley lately said that he "thought the man or the party who solved the question of preventing a man who has worked hard all his life, maintained his family, has been a good citizen, from going in his old age to the workhouse, would deserve more glory than by winning battles on the field." In this he expressed a feeling which is highly commendable, but which is no excuse for running into Socialistic schemes that will not bear examination.

RECONSTRUCTION IN IRELAND.

LONDON, February 15, 1892.

THE two last and the present sessions of Parliament have, regarding Ireland, opened in manners diametrically different—that of 1890 in assured hope and enthusiastic confidence; that of 1890–91 in the blackness of despair; the present, with a feeling of encouragement, especially if we consider the results of the English by-elections, yet not without a grave conception of the magnitude of difficulties before us when we remember the Parnellite success at Waterford. To most of the Irish members there appeared no possibility of difference regarding Mr. Parnell's duty and the right course to be pursued when, in November, 1890, they determined to bring him to book regarding the O'Shea verdict and his attitude towards the Liberal party and themselves. If their mental vision was then unsealed, and for the first time the selfishness of spirit to which he had declined stood fully revealed before them and the world, they also realized as they had never realized before his consummate adroitness and superb resource. A difference hinging entirely upon personal conduct of his which could be defended by no one, was, in a speech of a few minutes and in a short manifesto, made to turn upon totally different issues. They, not he, were put upon their defence. He recognized the subsistence of tense cords of feeling in the Irish heart which they thought had been for ever unstrung, and the growth of others of which they had been unaware. Suspicion and hatred of English parties and of the English people were again aroused. The cry of "No priests in politics" was raised when it was found that the priests were opposed to him. The issues before the country were deliberately confused.

The history of Irish affairs since has been the history of an effort, in the main successful, to reëstablish the Irish movement upon the basis, and carry it forward upon the lines, which Mr. Parnell himself had originally laid down, but which he and his followers had so strangely abandoned. His and their object thenceforward was to uproot the very foundations of an agitation carried with infinite toil, at infinite sacrifice, through twenty weary years almost to success. The crisis was desperate. The organization of the National League remained in Mr. Parnell's hands. The principal organ of public opinion in Ireland—theretofore also the organ of the Catholic bishops—supported his policy, and dared his opponents (the majority of the Irish party) to show their faces in Ireland. On the side of the nation as against a man, Davitt was more of a philosopher than an organizer. Sexton, supreme as a parliamentarian, was ill-fitted by disposition to face mobs and blackthorns. Dillon and O'Brien were in America, and on their return, after futile attempts at a settlement, went into prison with words of doubtful import on their lips. Justin McCarthy, the new chairman, whom every one respected, was not the man for a rough-and-tumble fight. It was Mr. Healy in the main that saved the situation. If the storm was to be faced and beaten down, it was he that stood in the forefront. If within a few weeks a daily organ, the *National Press*, was started, and the reorganization of the country set about, if within a few months the *Freeman's Journal* was compelled to swing into line with the majority of the nation—to him, more than to any other man, was the credit due. And yet, by the violence of his language, Mr. Healy was between many a cause of profound difference, and he is pointed to by the Parnellites as a permanent impediment in the way of reconciliation. There can be little doubt that his writings and utterances alienated many sensitive souls, incapable of perceiving that extravagance of language in support of right cannot warrant men in turning their backs upon the right. The question they should now ask themselves is, not whether they might not have preferred to have the crisis met in a spirit of complaisant and respectable amiability, but whether, remembering the language used by Mr. Parnell himself at the outset, and the course of action embarked upon by him and his adherents, it would have been possible, with any chance of success, so to have met it. That Healy and men like him are hated by the Parnellites not on account of their language, but in proportion as they are dangerous opponents, is proved by the fact that just as Dillon, O'Brien, and Davitt, whose language has been studiously moderate, have come to the front, they have come to be hated in like manner. Scarcely worse treatment has by howling crowds in the streets of Dublin been meted out to Mr. Healy than has been meted out to men who, by their desire for forgiveness and reconciliation, have run the risk of being considered half-hearted.

Nevertheless, the time has now come when scornful invective and denunciation had better give place to moderation. Mr. Parnell died, worn out by his own frantic efforts to undo his life's work, all by which he will yet be remembered. The evil passions resuscitated by him still bear sway in the breasts of his followers, and operate to a dangerous extent in many of the Irish constituencies. A daily paper has been set on foot to sustain and advance the cause of faction. It must indeed be difficult for Irishmen abroad to understand why there should not again be unity in the Irish party. If they withhold their help and countenance until there is union, if they hold their reason in abeyance in judging as to which side is deserving of their confidence and support, they will fall into the same error as that into which British statesmen for so many generations fell. Union is no more possible in Ireland than in other countries. If it is necessary that she should in Parliament be represented for the present by a homogeneous body of representatives, and if there is no longer any question regarding Mr. Parnell's leadership, the only intelligible basis of union that remains is that the minority should subordinate their feelings to those of the majority. More especially is this to be demanded when all the best-known and best-tried men—those who have striven longest and suffered most—are to be found on the side of the majority. Well might Irishmen stand in doubt if Davitt, Dillon, O'Brien, McCarthy, Sexton, Healy, Sullivan, or one of them, advised union with the minority. The minority is largely composed of fresh additions to the ranks of the National party. The task they set before themselves and the country is to sweep the majority from political life; upon the strength of their own character and services to build up a pure and reliable party; to hamper, embarrass, and destroy the Liberals; to begin again where Mr. Parnell himself began, but without him, without the power of parliamentary protest possible under the old rules, without the possibility of resuscitating a land agitation.

Surely, there never was a wilder programme placed before any people. If we cannot but admit that many of them are honest and devoted, we are driven to the conclusion that they are carried away by some aberration of mind almost amounting to political lunacy. Their main reliance is upon the chivalrous devotion of the Irish people to the memory of Mr. Parnell; upon a feeling against clerical dictation, wholesome enough in itself, if not warranted in the present juncture; upon national pride as against what they style Mr. Gladstone's interference in our affairs. Reason is being held in abeyance; feeling is to take its place—such feeling as led the French to receive Napoleon back from Elba and to elect his nephew; such feeling, if we are to judge from a remarkable article in the January *Atlantic*, as swayed the slave States when they went into rebellion. All hope of settlement in our day and generation would be at an end if such feeling moved the majority of the Irish people.

That it does sway large numbers with a depth and fervor blinding to all best national interests is deeply to be deplored. Strange as it may appear, Parnellism is confined more to town than to country districts, where the people gained most from the agitation of the past twenty years. We always looked forward under home rule to Mr. Parnell leading the conservative instincts of the country against the towns; in place of which in his extremity he appealed to the radical and revolutionary instincts of the towns against the country. So long as the Parnellites can sustain their daily organ, the *Independent*, the longer the general election can be adjourned, the better for them and the Conservatives. They are now a much more potent factor in Irish politics than they are likely to be after the electors have dealt with them. The advent of the Liberals to power, and the introduction of a satisfactory Home-Rule Bill, would entirely cut the ground from under their feet. Poor as has been the success of Mr. Balfour's Land Act, the agrarian movement is apparently breaking down under present complications. Ireland is not the fashion to the extent that she was. These considerations undoubtedly carry weight in Conservative counsels. Nevertheless, the

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Liberal leaders and the English people, however discouraged regarding Ireland, have undoubtedly grasped the principles upon which alone the Irish difficulty can be solved. The anticipations of their opponents will be belied. Present trials and difficulties reveal more clearly than would under previous conditions have been possible, the real opinions of the Irish people. Much is now being brought to the test and fought out that would otherwise have had to be left in doubt until after the establishment of home rule. And, after a general election, whatever measure is accepted as final by a large majority of the Irish people is much more likely to be lasting and final than if it had been accepted by a majority elected merely upon the fiat of Mr. Parnell. D. B.

THE DRINK QUESTION IN GERMANY.

DRESDEN, February 18, 1892.

A NEW idea is just getting above the horiz n of German thought. A body of citizens, small in number, but containing a large proportion of the thoughtful and competent observers of the social situation, are by no means content with the drinking habits of the people. They believe that, even if violent drunkenness is still rare, the physical and moral fibre of the nation is being weakened from year to year; and it is this sentiment which has now found expression in the recent Bill for the Repression of Drunkenness. The fact that agitation on the subject has been able to reach the Reichstag, has been commended by the Emperor, and has been supported by some of the most important persons in the State, certainly makes a very important incident in German social history, and I use the present moment of discussion to point out what seem to me the social influences and movements which lie behind the bill.

The contents of the present bill make up a strange mingling of some proposals which to an American seem very elementary, with others which seem very harsh. It is curious to hear the appeal to personal liberty made at such different points in different lands. The American citizen has grown accustomed to having his liberty infringed in the case of drink, but thinks of Germany as a monument of Governmental interference because it has State railways and telegraphs and compulsory army-service. The German, on the other hand, takes these institutions as in the course of nature, and is even willing that the State shall put drunkards under guardianship and sequestrate their estates; but he draws the line of personal liberty at his own right to unlimited beer. Much more interesting, however, than the fate of the present bill is the question what the influences are which lie behind it, and which will remain of importance even if the bill is wholly lost. These influences appear to be of two kinds: first, the growth of organized temperance organizations in Germany; and second, and much more effective, the serious impression felt by many of the best-informed citizens that a social crisis for the country is near at hand in which the liquor question must have its part. As to the first of these influences, the story for Germany is short, and, until very lately, insignificant. Most of the movements which have got any foothold in Germany have come to it from without. The Blue Cross organization has come over from Switzerland and secured some little following among evangelical Christians in Germany. The Good Templars have come down from Denmark and have a limited membership in Schleswig-Holstein. An International Temperance League has been organized within the past year with its bureau in Denmark, and has begun the publication of a monthly journal devoted to the cause (*Internationale Monatsschrift zur Bekämpfung der Trinksitten*). Three small societies rally the German total abstainers, one under the lead of Prof. Forel, the director of an insane asylum in Zürich, one under Prof. Bunge, a physiologist of Basel, and one directed by a most devoted and intelligent leader in all social reforms, Dr. W. Bode of Dresden. Of these societies the Swiss stands more especially for State prohibition, and the Dresden Club for personal influences. Each branch is active with tracts and periodicals, but none of the three numbers more than seventy members.

The only considerable temperance association is the "Verein gegen den Missbrauch geistiger Getränke." This society, founded in 1883, may be said to have a real social importance. It numbers about 10,000 members, grouped in some thirty local associations. Its membership is almost wholly recruited from the educated and influential class. Among its first supporters were the Emperor Frederick, Gen. von Moltke, Field-Marshal Herwarth von Bittenfeld, and the Oberbürgermeister Miquel, now Prussian Minister of Finance and one of the most important persons in Germany. It has also among its members many physicians, prison officials, directors of asylums, pastors concerned with missionary work, charity experts like Dr. Emminghaus of Gotha, economists like Prof. Böhmert of Dresden, and many other persons brought professionally or by their philanthropic activity into close relations with the question of drink. This society demands no pledge of abstinence; indeed, at its Congress last summer in Bremen, wine was served on the tables. It calls for nothing more than a general interest in moderation, and unites all who feel the social danger of drink. The present Emperor, following the example of his father, has formally expressed the hope that this society may prosper. It is in reality the parent of the present bill, for which it has repeatedly petitioned. As early as December, 1887, it formulated its wishes in almost the same language. The law now proposed may thus be fairly described as offered to the country by its expert philanthropists, and as having its strength through the social position of a few of its adherents.

Yet this amount of direct agitation is not, I think, sufficient to account for the new interest in the drink question in Germany. Quite apart from the efforts of these reformers, there seems to be an impression in many minds that both the money and the physical strength of the people are being seriously wasted, and this, too, at a time when both are terribly needed. The fact is that the nations of Europe are now engaged in a contest for life itself—a contest which has been until very lately for military supremacy, but which has now been abruptly and happily transferred to the field of trade. The demand in each country is so great, the competition so close, and the results may be so portentous, that intelligent men are setting themselves to consider every factor of the case which may have any weight; and in Germany, at least, many observant persons have come to see that one important factor is the drink-habit. The nation which first checks the present increase in the use of liquor will have, it is seen, a tremendous advantage both in physical and economic warfare. The first newspaper article which suggested to me that the Germans were aware of the social danger of drink was, curiously enough, the *Army Journal*. It described the autumn manœuvres at Erfurt, where a detachment of reserves was called out to take part in those days of vigorous drill. These men, summoned thus abruptly from their ordinary pursuits, soon showed that they were in poor physical trim and quite unfit for active service; and the military critic attributed this fact to the inactive, beer-drinking habit of life into which they had sunk. "Unless," he wrote, "Germany redeems herself from the saloon, she will look in vain for competent defenders when the test of war is to be met. A man cannot rise from his 'Kneipe' and fight well for his fatherland."

This judgment, made from the military point of view, appears even better justified when one considers the present economic situation in Europe. Germans, on the whole, agree with their Emperor that the new reciprocity treaties begin a new period in European history. But with this change in diplomacy, a new importance is given to questions of social science. A new test of supremacy is presented. The nation, or the group of nations, which is internally the healthiest, the most self-contained, and the most productive, will best meet this new test. The most sober and thrifty nation will have a tremendous advantage in this industrial competition. Where, then—people are beginning to ask themselves—is there any great waste of income; and where can any saving be made? This question points directly to the drink habit. Add to this new industrial diplomacy the present extreme dearness of the necessities of food, partly the result of vicious legislation and partly of the bad harvest of the year. Bread has cost more in Germany this autumn than in any year since the so-called famine year of 1847. The common price through the last twenty years of the coarse rye bread of the country has been about two and a half cents a pound, and often it has gone as low as two cents. It has cost this autumn nearly four cents. Germany is, on the whole, a nation of poor people. In thousands of homes life is sustained on an incredibly narrow margin of income. The average income per head in the kingdom of Saxony is about $106, and there are scores of cases in the Saxon district of Zittau in which whole families of weavers, man, wife, and from one to four children, make both ends meet on $100 a year. In such a state of things a new importance is given to the question: How much does Germany spend on drink? Is it not an unreasonable amount, and does it not seriously limit both the food production and the financial strength of the country?

These questions have seemed to me so important that I have asked a most competent expert, Dr. W. Bode, to make an abstract of the imperial statistics for the year 1889–'90, bearing on this subject. The result of this examination will make the first study of the kind in Germany, and will soon be published in pamphlet form under the title of 'The German Drink Question' ('Die Deutsche Alcohol-Frage'). The facts which will there be described in detail are, briefly stated, as follows: The production of material manufactured into beer, wine, and spirits in Germany occupied in 1889–'90 just about one-fifteenth of the cultivated land of the whole country, a territory somewhat larger than the kingdom of Saxony or the grand-duchy of Baden, and somewhat smaller than the kingdom of Würtemberg. If this immense field, thus devoted to the liquor traffic, were diverted to the production of food, there might be raised on it in a year 1,637 millions of kilogrammes of rye, a quantity sufficient to make 3,272 millions of pounds of the bread on which the poorer classes chiefly live. The fifty millions of

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people of Germany would be able to have of this bread 65½ pounds apiece, or a family of eight persons, 524 pounds; enough to give them their entire food for six or seven weeks. The loss in money value may be estimated at a total of 458 millions of marks—a loss to each inhabitant of 9 marks 17 pf., or to a family of eight of 73 marks, enough to pay all the expenses of a weaver's family for about eight weeks. In the direct service of the liquor traffic, agriculture, manufacture, and retailing, about one and a half millions of men are engaged, out of the twenty and one-half millions occupied in all the industries of the land. In other words, about one-quarter of the productive energy of the country is devoted to this business. The consumption of drink per head of the population gave in 1889-90 the following figures: Wine, 6.44 liters; distilled, 4.64 liters (pure alcohol); beer, 106.3 liters.

In the presence of facts of these dimensions it is in vain to say that the temperance question in Germany is not serious and pressing. Here, as in other lands, it is at least one possible key of the economic situation. Professor Schmoller of Berlin, perhaps the most important leader of the younger political economists of Germany, has expressed himself unequivocally on the subject as follows: "Among our working people, the conditions of domestic life, of education, of prosperity, of progress or degradation, are all dependent on the proportion of income which flows down the father's throat. The whole condition of our lower and middle classes—one may even without exaggeration say the future of our nation—depends on this question. If it is true that half our paupers become so through drink, it gives us some estimate of the costly burden which we tolerate. No other of our vices bears comparison with this." FRANCIS G. PEABODY.

Correspondence.

MR. COLE'S ENGRAVINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the closing of the series of engravings from the early Italian painters, now in course of publication in the *Century*, a desire has been expressed by several artists and amateurs of art, of high distinction, among whom I may mention E. Burne-Jones, G. F. Watts, and W. B. Richmond, to obtain from Mr. Cole a series of engravings of a still more important character, from the same epoch of art in which he has shown so thorough an appreciation and such masterly power of reproduction in the *Century* engravings. Those who have followed the series will have noticed that in the course of the publication there has been a curious diversity in the style of the engraving, which is not explained by the relation of the prints in their order. The reason for this is, that when Mr. Cole went to Europe, he fell first under the influence of the later painters of the Italian school, and began his work in the Louvre, with the "Entombment of Titian," Da Vinci's "Mona Lisa," etc., and it was only when he had been some time in Italy and had become acquainted with the earlier painters, that he entered fully into the spirit of the Italian Renaissance, and his engraving from that time changed its character entirely, as will be seen by the reproductions of Gentile da Fabriano, Duccio, Botticelli, Mantegna, etc., etc., and the engravings which come later in the course of his work are certainly the most masterly and conscientious transcripts to black and white that have ever been made from that school. Mr. Burne-Jones says of them that they are better than any photograph; Mr. Watts says that they are incomparably the best renderings of early Italian art ever made. M. Hébert of the Académie de France has said to me, among other most flattering expressions, that "line could go no further in fidelity to the spirit of the originals." Richmond says that they are incomparable in their truthfulness; and old Cavalcaselle, the veteran critic of Italian art, says that they are the best reproductions of their epoch ever made.

Mr. Cole would be glad to be enabled to do, at a living price, a series of prints four times the size of those in the *Century*, from the earlier painters, and from works either never reproduced or unsatisfactorily reproduced; and I propose, on behalf of the admirers of Mr. Cole's work, to call for subscriptions for a series of wood-engravings which I believe would be the most important reproductions of the noblest school of painting the world has ever seen, both as to size and fidelity. The blocks would be about ten by sixteen inches, and it is proposed to limit the edition to 250 copies. Mr. Cole desires to make the series of twelve, but it seems to me that it would be better to limit the subscriptions to a series of six, which would be delivered, printed under the engraver's own eyes, for $50; and if the subscribers then desired to renew their subscriptions for another six, the way is open. Mr. Burne-Jones is confident of securing fifty subscribers in his own circle, and if 200 can be got, Mr. Cole would set about the work at once, his work for the *Century* being about completed. The half of the subscription would be payable as soon as the number is complete and the work determined on, and the other half when the prints are delivered. This is rendered necessary by the fact that the artist has not the means of support for the period in which he would be engaged in the undertaking.

If some enterprising and liberal publisher would undertake the work at his own risk, the matter would be simplified and the end of the friends of Mr. Cole's art equally attained; the only requisite being that he should be left free as to the choice and treatment of the subjects, which would be from Giotto and Duccio down.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, February 18, 1892.

THE SUFFERING IN RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was interested in your recent article on "Aid for the Starving Russians." I have already sent receipts for cooking cornmeal to Russia. They will be published far and wide, so that when the meal contributed by our generous Northwest reaches the sufferers, they will know how to deal with it. The receipts which I selected were mush, Johnnycake, and Boston rye-and-cornmeal bread. Molasses is scarce and dear in Russia, and will probably be omitted from the Boston bread, for that reason and because the taste there runs to sour, not to sweet, bread. I sent these receipts only by way of precaution. Cornmeal (*kukurúza*) is by no means unknown there. My friends in Petersburg told me that they bought it whenever they could, but I never chanced to see any on the table, or to find any in the shops, though the dealers knew what I wanted. In one of the imperial parks, near Petersburg, I have seen corn used as a fine variety of leaf-plant. One ambitious stalk had attained the height of a foot and a half, and sported a tiny ear and silk. It will not grow as grain until a hot region eight hundred or a thousand miles south of Petersburg is reached. A recent paragraph in a Russian newspaper states that cornmeal is now being shipped from Odessa to the suffering districts in the interior, and the peasants have, without doubt, already discovered some ways of cooking it, where they were not already familiar with it. There is no difficulty about grinding it, as they make several sorts of meal (*krupá*) in Russia. Oatmeal is not among them. After a long and wearisome search, when I was informed condescendingly, in shop after shop, that oatmeal was fit only for animals, I succeeded in getting a little, in St. Petersburg. I never repeated the experiment. No amount of cooking could make that improperly prepared oatmeal fit for human consumption.

The highest aristocracy of Russia is now forming into groups, proceeding in person to the villages which are distant from railways and other means of communication, and administering help to the sufferers. This has been found to be one of the most efficacious methods of rendering aid. Those who cannot go themselves are choosing the most afflicted localities, and sending their contributions to persons of whose honesty they are perfectly sure, and corresponding with them to keep track of the work. Thus, the cousin of Count L. N. Tolstoi, who writes me these details, has chosen for her sphere of activity (being of an age and health which preclude personal activity on the spot) three districts: in Saratoff, where a little hospital has been organized for women and children reduced to beggary; in Orel, where a cousin, Prince V., is distributing succor himself day and night, to prevent any deception; in Penza, where, in a very poor convent, the nuns feed and shelter between 80 and 100 starving people a day, though they have hardly enough to eat themselves. In this manner, the proper expenditure of every penny is assured and is a real benefit. The Count's cousin has raised funds for her work, among other means, by translating 'Miss Toosey's Mission' into French. She has already realized $350 and expects at least $500 from 'Miss Toosey.' It may be of interest to Americans to learn how active and practical the Russians themselves are in this crisis.—Yours truly,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

9 EAST 22D STREET,
NEW YORK, February 27, 1892.

THE PERIODIC LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Without detracting an iota from the fame of Prof. Mendeléef, who is one of the greatest chemists of this or any age, I may venture to correct the statement made in the *Nation* of February 4 (review of 'The Principles of Chemistry'), that this great Russian scientist was the discoverer of "the Periodic Law." In 1882, it is true, the Royal Society of London did award the Davy medal to Prof. Mendeléef, conjointly with Lothar Meyer, "for their discovery of the periodic relations of the atomic weights." This action was taken in ignorance of the fact that in 1864, a number of years before Mendeléef and Meyer had begun their investigations, Prof. John A. R. Newlands of England had pointed out the law of octaves and the periodicity of functions. For some strange reason the discovery attracted little notice at the time, but after the Royal Society had honored his rivals, Prof. Newlands claimed recognition as the original discoverer. The fact having been conclusively established, the Royal Society in 1887 awarded the Davy medal for that year to Prof. New-

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lands "for his discovery of the Periodic Law of the Chemical Elements," adding, "Although in the somewhat less complete form in which the law was enunciated by him, it did not at the time attract the attention of chemists, still, in so far as the work of the two foreign chemists above mentioned was anticipated, the priority belongs to Mr. Newlands" (*vide* Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, 1887-'88, vol. 43, p. 195).

Even Newlands was almost anticipated by Beguyer de Chancourtois, who was catching a gleam of the great truth enunciated by Newlands, and elaborated by Mendeléef, when he brought out his treatise in 1863, entitled, 'Vis Tellurique, classement naturel des corps simples ou radicaux, obtenu au moyen d'un système de classification hélicoïdal et numérique.'—Yours truly, C. De K.

New York, February 5, 1892.

[If our correspondent will read carefully what the Council of the Royal Society say about Newlands, he will see that they do not commit themselves very far. In truth, the step taken by him was not a difficult one. The principal precursor of Mendeléef was, as it seems to us, that penetrating intellect, Josiah P. Cooke, who first proved that all the elements were arranged in natural series. For though his classification was not free from uncertainties, which have since been removed, nor from such mistakes as the association of borax and silicon according to the ideas of that day, yet his memoir could leave no real doubt of the general serial arrangement; and this was a great advance upon what Dumas and others had done. After the new atomic weights came in, it was inevitable that every well-informed and ingenious chemist, in speculating upon the relations of the properties and atomic weights of the elements, should be led to write the different series in a certain succession, somewhat as follows:

Li 7	Na 23	K 39	—	Rb 85	Ag 101	Cs 132	
—	Mg 24	Ca 40	Zn 65	Sr 87	Cd 112	Ba 137	Pb 206.
C 12	Si 28	Ti 48	—	Zr 90	Su 118		
N 14	P 31	V 51	As 75	Nb 94	Sb 122	—	Bi 210
O 16	S 32	Cr 52	Se 78	Mo 96	Te 128	W 184	
Fl 19	Cl 35½	—	Br 80	—	I 127		

It would also be remarked that the atomicities of these series seemed to be i, ii, iv, iii, ii, i. No doubt, many a chemist in those days drew up a table more or less like this, but refrained from publishing it, feeling that a great discovery was imminent. An obscure American chemist actually assigned this as a reason for not attaching his name to such a table. Yet this was all, if not more than all, that Newlands did; and his papers, in a very widely circulated journal, made no sensation.

Of all those who were puzzling over the relations of the elements, Mendeléef alone had the sagacity to discern the true scheme of relationship; and this he was aided in doing by his more profound study of the relations between their general properties. His wonderfully vivid conception of the scheme, as well as his clear perception of its evidence, is shown by the formal and audacious descriptions he gave of the properties of several elements then undiscovered, but required to fill blank spaces, and by the subsequent triumphant verification of his predictions, especially of what seemed the most wild and improbable of all—that relating to gallium. Very few inductions in the whole history of science are worthy of being compared with this as efforts of reason. The work of Lothar Meyer also has great value as supplementary to that of Mendeléef. In all branches of physics, inductions concerning periodic laws are most difficult to establish; and the pursuit of indications of periodicity leads all but the most wary of minds to some wild-goose chase. Yet how quickly and completely the periodic law of chemistry was put out of doubt!

While we are upon this subject, we may suggest that if there are atomicules that are Boscovichian points, two or more of these might attract one another according to such a law that they would approach one another in spirals without ever becoming separated; and in this way it might be supposed that the atoms of most of the existing chemical elements have been built up from a few different kinds, and that it is in this way that the relations between the atomic weights have arisen. —Ed. Nation.]

PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of December 17, 1891, contained some pointed remarks with regard to the action of the firm of Jas. W. Queen & Co., in complaining to the Government that certain professional persons were obtaining microscopes, ostensibly for laboratory work, and afterwards selling them to students. Their virtuous indignation over this matter called to my mind a conversation of some months since with a gentleman who told me that he had seen in an English medical journal an advertisement by this firm, offering a case of optical test lenses at a certain price, adding below that the same case was $15 more in the United States. As they are not known to be in business from purely philanthropic motives, it is probable that this American firm can not only compete with foreign manufacturers of test lenses, but can make a fair profit in so doing. The iniquitous "protective" tariff, however, makes it possible for them to demand and obtain $15 extra profit from me. Opticus.

Philadelphia, February 27, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gen. Walker's suggestion that the Government should charge immigrants $100 each is offered, I presume, because of the widely diffused conviction that the class of immigrants we have received has debased our political life; but from a protectionist standpoint I do not consider the amount large enough. I am a laboring man, thirty years of age. I earn (say) $300 per annum, and shall probably continue to do so for ten years, making the value of my labor $3,000. I pay a tax of from 30 to 100 per cent. on my wearing apparel, furniture, tools, etc.; why should I not be protected by making my foreign competitor pay at least 20 per cent. tariff on his $3,000 worth of goods, or $600 instead of $100?—Respectfully yours,

Thos. F. Anderson.

Chicago, February 26, 1892.

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The fine aphorism of Calgacus, "Omne ignotum pro magnifico est," has its obverse in the fact that "Omne proximum pro ignobili est." One would hardly suspect, from reading the interesting and excellent letter of Mr. Stille in your issue of the 11th inst., that the doctrines of the complex variable, of conform depiction—*zusammenhangend und in den kleinsten Teilen ähnlich*—of multiply compendent multifoliate Riemannian surfaces, with their *Windungs- und Verzweigungspunkte*, *lacets fondamentaux*, *et id omne genus*, were taught carefully and studied zealously almost within ear-shot of the writer. Yet such is the case. The enclosed conspectus shows that courses in such subjects not only are offered—there is little art in that—but are actually pursued at the University of the State of Missouri. Next year the class will meet not three times, as now, but five times per week, throughout the year, and follow in the fresh tracks of Hermite, Halphen, and Weierstrass. But even Freshman students here are familiarized with $x+iy$ and imaginary exponentals, while for the whole body of geometric discipline the researches of Bolyai, Lobatchevsky, and Riemann are regulative.—Respectfully,

William Benjamin Smith.

Columbia, Mo., February 19, 1892.

[We are pleased to learn that mathematics is so deeply studied in Missouri. The lectures of Hermite form a good introduction to the theory, and the work of Halphen to the practical side, of the doctrine of functions. As we are unacquainted with any treatise of Weierstrass capable of being used for a text-book, the study of this author (concurrently, perhaps, with that of the orations of Calgacus) cannot fail to impress us very much. Nothing is said of projective geometry, which ought to be a compulsory study where there are any compulsory studies; but we cannot expect a relatively small university to cover every branch of mathematics, nor would such an ambitious attempt be wise. We are glad the ideas of Riemann (including doubtless those of Cayley and Klein) are regulative, and that Lobatchevsky is at hand for students who wish to approach the non-Euclidian geometry by the elementary method. Bolyai is a make-weight.—Ed. Nation.]

KIRK'S ALLIBONE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had I been aware of your rule not to print rejoinders to your reviews, I should certainly not have had the presumption to claim exemption from it. But since you have published my letter, with a reply which is calculated, however undesignedly, to convey a wrong impression as to the scope of my book and the principles on which it was prepared—a matter not exclusively of personal importance—I must ask the further indulgence of being permitted to offer a brief explanation.

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The work is not a *revision* of Allibone's, and I am no more responsible for his defects than he, if he were still living, would be for mine. The evidence I found that a revision of his work would some day be necessary, led me occasionally to omit entries which could not so appropriately be inserted in the 'Supplement' as in a revised edition of the original work. This will account for the omission, among others, of Mrs. Follen's book, Allibone having mentioned her earlier works, but without dates, etc., so that what seemed to be really required was an entirely new statement in his 'Dictionary.' The omission of Miss Sheppard's name was also intentional, and was obviously necessary if my work was to have any definite limits; for Allibone had recorded her death, which occurred several years before the date at which the 'Supplement' takes up the entries under the letter S, and there was no more reason for my resuscitating her on account of his having failed to mention 'Almost a Heroine' than there would have been for my going back over the whole field of English literature in search of similar cases. J. C. Mangan's death is not mentioned by Allibone; but it occurred within his period, and hence the 'Poems,' a posthumous work, did not appear to me to call for admission in the 'Supplement.'

Several other omissions, among those which you have noticed, may be defended on the same or similar grounds. Thus, Custis's 'Recollections of Washington' was omitted because Allibone had inserted it under Washington's name, where readers would be pretty sure to look for it when they failed to find it under that of the author. George H. Derby was omitted because Allibone had inserted his books under the pseudonym under which they appeared. "Doesticks" is an entry which, in accordance with the rule mentioned in my preface, I should not in any case have made without some fuller knowledge of the personality of the writer; but you will be glad to learn that this "representative of American humor" was not "entirely ignored" by Allibone, who, on the contrary, gave a presumably full list of his immortal works under his real name—Mortimer J. Thompson.

Your suggestion that I ought to have based my statements on contemporary reviews and advertisements seems to me to involve a misconception of the comparative value of such authorities and of the feasibility of such a course. A certain number of my entries were, in fact, derived from these sources; but to have made an exhaustive research among them, especially for American books, would have been to postpone to an indefinitely remote period the completion of the 'Supplement' on the chance of adding a few hundred titles to the ninety-three thousand there enumerated, while it would not have saved me from the commission of mistakes such as I have referred to as "serious."

Very respectfully yours,
JOHN FOSTER KIRK.

PHILADELPHIA, February 29, 1892.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & Co. have nearly ready 'The Early Religion of Israel,' by Prof. Robertson of Glasgow University; 'The Life Beyond,' by George Hepworth; 'The New Life,' by Andrew Murray; and 'A Girl's Winter in India,' by Mary Thorn Carpenter.

Charles L. Webster & Co. will add to their "Fiction, Fact, and Fancy Series," edited by Arthur Stedman, a collection of 'Merry Tales by Mark Twain'; 'Selected Poems from Walt Whitman'; 'The German Emperor and his Eastern Neighbors,' by Poultney Bigelow; and 'Don Finimondone: Calabrian Sketches,' by Mrs. Elizabeth Cavazza.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Monsieur Henri [de la Rochejacquelein]: A Footnote to French History,' by Louise Imogen Guiney; and 'Van Bibber and Others,' short stories by Richard Harding Davis.

Worthington Co. will publish immediately a translation, by Lita Angelica Rice, of Hector Malot's 'Conscience.'

'Ground Arms!' an English version, by Mrs. Alice Asbury Abbott, of Baroness Bertha von Suttner's novel, 'Die Waffen nieder!' is about to be issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Dr. Prompt, author of several monographs on matters pertaining to the study of Dante, and M. Maignien, librarian at Grenoble, announce the speedy publication of a photographic reproduction of the manuscript of Dante's 'De vulgari eloquio,' which is preserved in the library of Grenoble. This is not only one of the two important manuscripts of the work in existence, both dating from about the end of the fourteenth century, but is probably the more important of the two, being that used as a basis for the *editio princeps* of 1577 by Corbinelli, whose marginal notes are still legible. The reproduction is nearly the size of the original, and makes a book of some fifty pages. Subscriptions, at seven francs, are to be addressed to M. Maignien, Conservateur de la Bibliothèque de Grenoble. Still another forthcoming publication shows the growing interest in France, long indifferent in such matters, in Dante studies. Lecène & Oudin, who recently published M. Édouard Rod's 'Dante' in their series of "Classiques Populaires," now announce Mlle. C. Augis's translation of "l'importante étude de J. A. Symonds sur *Dante, son temps, son œuvre, son génie.*"

'La Femme au point de vue du Droit Public' is the title of a work by M. Ostrogorski which has been crowned by the Faculté de Droit of Paris, and appears in the series published by Arthur Rousseau. The author has compared the electoral laws of the principal countries of the world, finding that female suffrage in its unlimited form prevails only in our State of Wyoming. In a modified form, generally as connected with the possession of property, it is to be found in the Isle of Man, in Austria, Sweden, and Italy. But in local affairs, and for special purposes, women have rights of voting in almost all parts of the earth—rights that are for the most part, except in this country, of ancient date. The author also gives the established rules for female succession to the throne, for regency, etc., and adds chapters upon the capacity of women for holding office and following various public occupations. A translation of the work is to appear in Sonnenschein's "Social Science Series."

We spoke the other day with approval of Prof. Teegan's treatise on 'Elementary Education in France,' and drew from it an augury which its readers will find confirmed in M. Jost's *Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire*, now in its eighth year (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). This is, for 1892, a solid little volume of 600 pages, equally divided between statistics and personnel of the primary department, and papers on a variety of topics such as, we fear, are caviare to the majority of our primary-school teachers. One of these, "Ne bouleversons pas notre orthographe," by M. Martel, is an able and sensible objection to the proposals of French spelling reformers, and can be read with profit by our own. Of wide application, also, are the papers on "Les Musées scolaires," "Un Musée scolaire dans une école rurale." Another treats of public instruction in Tonkin; and Germany and England, with "abroad" generally, are included in the conspectus of the various contributors. At the end are to be found book reviews for 1891, geographical and scientific surveys, a necrology, and a bibliography.

From the same publishers we have the new periodical launched last month, *Revue Universitaire*, of which the object is to improve secondary education in France. M. Lavisse opens the ball with an article on necessary reforms in this direction, and Mlle. M. Dugard takes up the theme in behalf of her sex. M. Lavisse looks to a special training of professors, and would have them instructed in the current ideas of England and Germany by missionaries sent each year to report on them. Mlle. Dugard shows that in the ten years since the higher education for girls was fairly organized, there have sprung up 24 *lycées*, 26 *collèges*, and fifty courses; this in spite of much opposition, not yet wholly overcome. Extracts from Dr. W. Douglas Hogg's official report on English and French college life are begun and will be continued. The last part of the *Revue* is taken up with examinations and competitions, themes, etc., and with notes and news.

The periodical third in the scale, devoted to "l'enseignement supérieur," is the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* (A. Colin & Cie.), now in its twelfth year. In the January number twenty pages are devoted to an account of Wellesley College (Mass.), by E. Stropeno, who cannot withhold his praise from programme and performance, yet feels that in trying to give women, in Molière's language, "des clartés de tout," the college overdoes, and "virilizes" female education instead of "feminizing" the courses laid down for men. But he observes that this tendency is not confined to Wellesley or to America.

Last year's great earthquake in Japan has been studied and described, with the aid of twenty-nine photographs, by Profs. Milne and Burton, and the work has been published in that country at once sumptuously and at a low price. The seat of origin of the catastrophe was "a basin of palæozoic hills where there are neither volcanoes nor volcanic rocks," but which has a very bad record in the matter of earthquakes.

The twenty-ninth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ranges from *Inglis* to *John*. The Scottish and English monarchs, James and John, fill a large space together, the sketch of James I. of England being from the pen of Mr. S. R. Gardiner. The editor himself writes to good purpose on Ireland and his forgeries, and Mr. Leslie Stephen deals tenderly with Jeffrey. Dr. Richard Garnett gives a very clear idea of Edward Irving's character and career. Other noticeable articles are on Richard Jefferies, Jenner, Douglas Jerrold, and W. S. Jevons. The Rev. M. G. Watkins sums up the cannibal incident which clouds the memory of Stanley's lieutenant, J. S. Jameson, on the Congo, by saying: "Of the inhumanity thus imputed to Jameson he was undoubtedly incapable, but that he was guilty of reprehensible callousness is apparent from his own version of the affair." The pugilist Jackson, "Gentleman Jackson," as he was called by the nobility whom he instructed, was employed, we are told, at the coronation of George IV., "with eighteen other prize-fighters dressed as pages, to guard the entrance to Westminster Abbey and Hall." In the notice of the second Charles

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Inglis we descry an error in the thirteenth line, where "Auchnutz" is printed for Auchmuty, whose assistant at Trinity Church in this city Inglis became. *Per contra*, the biographer of William James, the naval historian, rebukes Cooper and Lounsbury for styling him an American and a renegade as well as a felon and a horse doctor; and Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' is challenged to prove that Gen. William Irvine graduated at Dublin, for his name does not appear on the list of graduates.

It appears from a new edition of Mr. Barrie's 'The Little Minister' (John W. Lovell Co.) that the copy on which our recent review was based was incomplete. The story was published as a serial in *Good Words* during the year 1891, and the final chapters in the December number of that magazine were not in the book. Mr. Barrie, instead of leaving us in the midst of an interesting situation, tells all we could desire to know. His description of Babbie, become a most respectable person, quite adored by Thrums, perhaps properly rounds out a romantic love story, but we cannot think it so probable as the development conjectured without the author's aid. Still, we are disposed to forgive Thrums so agreeable an inconsistency.

A number of reprints are before us which do not call for many words. From the Harpers, Mr. Black's 'Strange Adventures of a Phaeton,' the second volume in the new and revised edition of his popular novels; and Sir E. Creasy's 'Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World,' which has passed its fortieth year of steady demand. From Nims & Knight, Troy, N. Y., a second edition of Mr. Augustin Daly's 'Woffington,' which has naturally found a larger number of eager buyers than the 150 to whom the first edition (1888) was confined. The volume is still of the handsomest, adorned with nineteen illustrations. From J. W. Bouton, the Aldine edition of Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' illustrated by Stanley L. Wood, whose designs are sufficiently clever and enhance the typographical comeliness of the book. From Percival & Co., London, 'Selections from Defoe's Minor Novels,' edited by George Saintsbury in a short introduction to pieced extracts taken from 'Captain Singleton,' 'Moll Flanders,' the 'Memoirs of a Cavalier,' 'Colonel Jack,' and 'Roxana.' From Macmillan, the 'Religio Medici, and Other Essays by Sir Thomas Browne,' in the "Stott Library's" attractive pocket form, with a portrait of Browne and a good prefatory sketch of his life by Dr. D. Lloyd Roberts. The essay on cremation ("Hydriotaphia") has a revived interest in these days. From the Clarendon Press (Macmillan), 'The Oxford Shakspere,' edited by W. J. Craig. Its characteristics are—adherence to the text derivable from the quartos and the first folio, sparing emendations by the editor, a thorough revision of the punctuation, a glossary, and a numbering of the lines by four instead of a longer interval. The plays and the poems are included. The print is fine in double columns, and thin (but not too thin) paper makes an unbulky volume of 1,264 pages, 12mo.

Prominent among the more valuable of the publications recently issued by the Bureau of Ethnology is Prof. Cyrus Thomas's 'Catalogue of Prehistoric Works East of the Rocky Mountains.' Although filling a volume of 246 pages, the list is necessarily incomplete, owing to the indefinite character of some of the earlier accounts, and to the fact that there are thousands of mounds, graves, etc., scattered about the country which are unknown outside of the immediate neighborhoods in which they exist. So far as it goes, however—and a glance at the different maps will show the distribution as well as the number and character of these works—the record is believed to be correct. This, of itself, is a great gain, and when we add that the account is supplemented by a bibliography of the explorations that have been made at certain well-known mound centres, it will be seen that the student has cause to be thankful for the volume.

The grave of Gov. Simon Bradstreet, the common ancestor of the Danas, the Holmeses, Channing, and Wendell Phillips, is the subject of the leading paper in the *Salem Press Historical and Genealogical Record* for January. Bradstreet's portrait in the Essex Institute is reproduced, and there is a view of his tomb. Mr. Perley Derby begins an abstract of the County Court records of Essex County, Massachusetts, 1636–1693, in which the curious will find fresh illustrations of the phase of lax sexual morality recently discussed by Mr. Charles Francis Adams before the Massachusetts Historical Society, as well as of the rigor of church discipline considered in the same connection: presentments of man and wife for their confessed "offence before marriage"; of a certain William Winter of Lynn, "for saying that Mr. Cobbett of Lynn taught things against his own conscience"; of several for alleging "baptism of infants no ordinance of God"; of William Goult of Salem "for unseemly speeches against the rules of the Church; set in stocks one hour and severely whipt on Lord's day"; of Jeffrey Estie "for much sleeping on the Lord's day in church," etc.

The same press has put out, to subscribers, the first part (part ii.) of a 'History of the Putnam Family in England and America,' by Eben Putnam, illustrated. The work is expected to be finished by summer. It is limited to 300 copies. "Many surprises," promises the editor, "are in store for the great body of our name. . . . Never have characteristics, mental and physical, remained so fixed as in our family." This instalment treats of the Putnams of Danvers, and has much to tell of the witchcraft delusion as related to the Putnam family. One member, Joseph Putnam, was conspicuously opposed to the witchcraft trials.

Another bit of Puritan annals is 'Early Grants and Incorporation of the Town of Ware,' by Edward H. Gilbert (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). It is very largely documentary, and has been edited with great scrupulousness and caution. Important are the four maps—one an original compilation, the others representing the grants as found delineated in the Massachusetts Archives.

Mr. Arthur G. Webster writes to us from Clark University: "In my letter last week I spoke of a course including projective geometry formerly given at Harvard, and remarked that it seemed to have disappeared. I have to-day received the pamphlet describing the mathematical courses at Harvard, and am pleased to see that the course is still announced. I am glad to correct this apparent oversight, knowing as I do that it is not the custom at Harvard to take steps backward. I had consulted the catalogue of 1891–'92, in which the names projective or synthetic geometry do not appear, the course referred to being catalogued as analytic geometry (higher course)."

—The March *Atlantic* contains an important educational paper by Prof. Palmer upon the subject of "University Extension." He reviews the character and aims of the movement in England, and has little difficulty in showing the difference in the conditions there and here, the closer dependence of the American college on the people, and the richer and more varied resources, other than collegiate, for popular enlightenment among us; and he comes in this way naturally to the crucial point that the English movement enlists as teachers sufficiently capable men of education not otherwise employed, while in America it is proposed to draft the lecturers from the body of college professors. The doubt which he therefore expresses of the success or even wisdom of our imitation of the English scheme, rests on the probability that systematic college instruction will be weakened, and its grade lowered, in consequence of submitting professors to an amount of work too great to allow just attention to their prime duties. The paper does not lack friendliness for the efforts being made to extend intellectual interest among the people at large, and in particular for the work of Chautauqua, for which Prof. Palmer says the best and most useful word. It is plain, however, that the movement, as hitherto planned in this country, owes more to philanthropic sentiment than to either popular demand or well-considered methods of enlarging the domain of education; and now, rather than later, is the time to say that University Extension must be self-supporting, if it is to succeed, and cannot safely look to the colleges for more than advisory action. Otherwise, it cannot do more than repeat, with some improvement in organization and definiteness, the old lyceum system. This, at least, is the trend of Prof. Palmer's paper, which deserves very careful consideration from those interested in the matter. A second article, interesting because of the unusualness of its tone, is by Gamaliel Bradford, jr., on the "American Pessimist"; and, in fact, it reads rather like a study for some character in a novel than like an essay. Very sane and moderate in tone, and very interesting from its autobiographical nature, is Gen. J. D. Cox's exposition of the reasons which led Northern men to embark in the civil war. It is well calculated to impress thoughtful Southerners of the present or the previous generation. For the encouragement of those who have fancied that our poetry is running too much to "technique," we must refer to the verses entitled "A Metamorphosis," which make the old reader of the *Atlantic* rub his eyes. It were tedious to specify the curious infelicities of these lines, but the concluding couplet shall serve to exemplify them with a rhyme quite novel, we think, in these pages, however well suited to the latitude of Philadelphia:

"—his eyes are mild and calm;
The lion stands confessed a lamb."

Nor is it altogether a matter of rhyme and grammar; but the entire poem, from the time when the "beast of March" is "set free from out a cloud-hung arch" of skies that are as "cold as frosted violet's eye," to the moment of the transmogrifying rhyme above, is what, in the ancient days of criticism and poets, was called "doggerel." But the old "Demon of the Threshold," whom we all know, seems to have been throttled in the ante-room by Howells's "Christmas Boy."

—The *Popular Science Monthly* for March contains nothing that will be more interesting than Prof. Davis's sketch of William Ferrel, in which there are valuable additions to the article on this distinguished physicist which appeared in our columns, and President White's fifteenth chapter in the "Warfare of Science," wherein he outlines with much force the series of great battles fought regarding the relations

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of the earth to the heavenly bodies. In the early church, the earth was in its last days, and at best the heavenly bodies could only be objects of pious speculation. Wrought into the foundation of the "Ptolemaic Theory," and based upon it, there was developed in the middle ages, by means of Biblical texts and theologic reasonings, a sacred system of astronomy which became one of the great treasures of the universal Church. A triad of great thinkers, culminating in Saint Thomas Aquinas, the "Angelic Doctor," mainly reared this resultant structure of the universe, in form so final and impregnable that to attack it was blasphemy. It stood for centuries. Many will for the first time learn from Dr. White's able writing that even Luther called Copernicus the hard names of "fool" and "upstart astrologer"; while even the mild Melanchthon's 'Elements of Physics,' not published till six years after Copernicus's death, is responsible for these strange words: "The eyes are witnesses that the heavens revolve in the space of twenty-four hours. But certain men, either from the love of novelty, or to make a display of ingenuity, have concluded that the earth moves. . . . Now, it is a want of honesty and decency to assert such notions publicly, and the example is pernicious. It is the part of a good mind to accept the truth as revealed by God, and to acquiesce in it." Later, and to clinch anti-scientific ideas more firmly into German Protestant teaching, Rector Hensel wrote a text-book for schools, entitled 'The Restored Mosaic System of the World,' which showed the Copernican astronomy to be unscriptural. "Doubtless," significantly comments Dr. White, "this has a far-off sound; yet its echo comes very near modern Protestantism in the expulsion of Dr. Woodrow by the Presbyterian authorities in South Carolina; the expulsion of Prof. Winchell by the Methodist Episcopal authorities of Tennessee; the expulsion of Prof. Toy by the authorities of another Protestant sect in Kentucky; the expulsion of the professors at Beirut under authority of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions [Dr. White is in error as to the ecclesiastical control of the Protestant College at Beirut] —all for holding the doctrines of modern science, and in the last years of the nineteenth century."

—The handsome second and third parts of Mr. Gotch's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) more than sustain the interest of the first, which we noticed some ten months ago, and bring us to the end of the first volume. The subjects are on the whole more attractive than before, and the plates have gained something in quality. Some of the photo-prints of interiors are charming in light, clearness of detail, and picturesque quality—for instance, the Cartoon Gallery at Knole House, pl. 63, in spite of some intrusive and unexplained shadows, or the drawing-room at Bradfield, pl. 23, with its door in an inside porch as in an Italian church, but set in a corner, a device peculiar to these English houses. Of the exteriors, that of Rushton Hall, pl. 50-52, is the most attractive, and is indeed a model of picturesqueness, elegance, and good design. It must be said that the only signs of the Renaissance in it are the entrance gateway and the balustrade that sits rather uneasily above the cornice. Another exterior, Kirby Hall, pl. 45, is an interesting design of John Thorpe, and shows his work curiously commingled with that of Inigo Jones. It tells, also, how early (1570) Thorpe introduced into English building the idea of a single order running through two stories or more, which was the idea that revolutionized the Italian architecture of the sixteenth century; and with what lawless cleverness he pared the order down to a series of mere buttresses, running up into finials. Longford, pl. 33, is another of Thorpe's buildings. Its front, with a graceful second-story loggia, shows him at his best; its plan (a triangle with huge round towers at the angles, like one or two others here given) is characteristic of this most whimsical of architects. After all, one must conclude that Thorpe was a better architect than those about him, and had more sense of design, more fancy, more appreciation of proportion. It is borne in upon us that the English builders of that day were much stronger in surface decoration than in any other. Their arabesques, diapering, and strap-work were good; but their details in relief and their larger features were apt to be coarse, crude, and barbarously misproportioned. We have here, too, an example of the most repellent qualities of their architecture in Barlborough Hall, a bare, cold, rigid, and mechanical design quite in keeping with the clipped yew trees in front of it. It is full of the lean and hungry look which belongs to much of the English Renaissance, and which is due to spare mouldings, thin cornices, and as much as anything to the groups of windows, with their abundant mullions flush, or nearly so, with the face of the wall. Mr. Gotch's criticism is as judicious as before. His comments are always interesting and instructive, and sometimes entertaining; whoever overlooks them in examining the book will do so to his own loss.

—The valuable anthropometric data published in 1877 by the Massachusetts State Board of Health, have been rearranged and recalculated, in the form recommended by Galton, by Dr. Henry P. Bowditch ('The Growth of Children, studied by Galton's Method of Percentile Grades'). That is to say, having measures of 848 Boston school-boys five years old, Dr. Bowditch gives first the average height of the shortest forty-two (or five per cent.), then that of the next shortest forty-two, and so on. These calculations are made for each age from five to eighteen. Similar calculations are given for those of American and of Irish parentage. The same thing is then given in regard to weight, and finally the whole is repeated for girls. The numbers are then plotted in curves in various ways. Several new generalizations are thus brought to view. Of course, every man remembers that humiliating period when the girls of his age were bigger than he, and not only looked down upon him from a greater physical elevation, but still more from the supercilious heights of maturer minds. At the same time, he could not help thinking that the girls were dull. This period begins between ten and eleven with a retarded rate of growth of the boys, both in height and weight, which is coincident with a maximum of mental brightness. Indeed, many a man never after recovers the same penetrating intelligence, as distinguished from human insight. Somewhat later, from twelve to fourteen, the girls attain their most rapid growth, and thus, until the most rapid growth of the boys approaches, the girls continue to be the largest.

—All this was already sufficiently known. Dr. Bowditch's new treatment seems to show that all the phenomena of this age come rather earlier with large-sized than with small-sized children. The method of treatment of the statistics necessarily exaggerates this considerably; for the children who grow earlier are necessarily thereby thrown into the higher grades. Hence, it would be desirable to show the general fact by a method which should preserve the identity of the growers. The preliminary retardation of the growth of boys shows nothing of this, but occurs at about eleven for large and small, though it is much more decided for the former. But the acceleration of the increase of weight in girls (which is far more marked than that of their height) is for the largest girls almost at its maximum at eleven, for the middling girls is delayed to thirteen, and for the smallest does not come till fourteen. The result is, that the period at which the girls are taller than the boys of the same age begins at ten and one-half for the largest, and at eleven and one-half for the smallest children; while the period at which they are heavier begins at ten and one-half for the largest and not till fourteen for the smallest children. Then the boys take their start, the largest growing most rapidly in height and weight at fourteen, the middling ones at fifteen, the smallest at sixteen. Consequently, among the largest children, the boys catch up with the girls in height at thirteen, but among the smallest not till fifteen; while in weight, among the largest children the boys catch up at fourteen and among the smallest at fifteen and one-half. Many other interesting relations are brought out for which the pamphlet will be consulted. We hope that it may serve as a model for much future school anthropometry.

—The Japanese Government, with an enlightened consideration for illiterate foreigners, has caused to be translated and published the report of the Minister for Education, as well as the recent laws and regulations affecting schools and teachers. Although the Government of Japan is highly centralized, the elementary schools of the country are under the control of the local authorities, and supported by local taxation or other subvention. Tuition fees are charged to children attending these common schools, although they may be remitted in case of indigence, and apparently more than one-third of the scholars pay nothing. These fees amount to only one-fourth of the total revenue of the schools. The subjects taught in the ordinary elementary schools are morals, reading, composition, writing, arithmetic, and gymnastics. To this curriculum may be added Japanese geography and history, drawing, singing, handiwork, and, for girls, sewing. In the higher elementary schools foreign geography and science are added, and in some cases a foreign language or some other subject. The course of study in the lower grade is three or four years; in the higher, two, three, or four years; and, in addition to Sundays, not more than ninety days a year are allowed for vacation. The school age is the period of eight years between the sixth and fourteenth year of age, and attendance at school is obligatory, which of course involves the obligation on the part of all communities to provide schools.

—That these are not merely paper provisions appears both from the number of schools and scholars reported and from the disbursements. Controlled by local authorities are over 28,000 schools, of which 26,000 are elementary schools. The teachers number nearly 72,000, and the scholars 3,144,000. Adding those in other schools, the total number in attendance is about 3,410,000, or very nearly half the total population of school age. It is worthy of remark that teachers of elementary schools are forbidden to make use of corporal punishment. The intermediate and higher education is as yet in a

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comparatively undeveloped state, the Imperial University being of course the most prominent feature. The total annual expense of the system of education is apparently not far from 9,000,000 *yen*, or, allowing for the depreciation of silver, say $7,000,000. Among the laws, we observe several providing for a system of pensions, the features of which seem to us highly objectionable. Unless human nature proves to be different in Japan from what it has elsewhere shown itself, the system will eventually be affected with serious abuses.

HISTORY MADE READABLE.

The Story of Massachusetts. By Edward Everett Hale. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Mr. Hale, with a view to readableness, as he says, has preferred to select twenty occasions of critical interest in the history of Massachusetts rather than to condense the continuous annals within his limited space. In the matter of proportion, his well-known Chautauquan text-book principle of concluding American history with the war of 1812 leads him to devote 319 pages to Massachusetts affairs down to and including that event, and just 14 pages to all that comes after. A "Study of Anne Hutchinson" fills 27 pages! No more slovenly piece of work has proceeded even from his hand, nor could a truly conscientious author allow this to go forth as history.

As to errors in names, Mr. Hale changes Phips to Phipps, Peirce to Pearce, Clap to Clapp, Say and Sele to Say and Seal, Denison to Dennison, Shays to Shay (twenty times). The reader must choose between the recollections of Capt. Roger Clap and of Richard Clapp; between Sir Edmund and Sir Edward Andros; between John Foster Williams and John Forster Williams; between Commodore Hull and Commodore Hall; between Weeden's 'Economic History' and Welden's. The Governor of Massachusetts from 1823 till his death in 1825 was William Eustis—previously of the Army of the Revolution, Member of Congress, Secretary of War, a prominent citizen; and not, as stated (p. 354), William Curtis.

"Sir Harry Vane" did not come over (p. 13) in the year 1633-34. Vane did not come till 1635, and he was not "Sir Harry" till after his return to England. "They [Robinson and his people] had arrived in August, 1608. They would hardly have come to Holland but for the suspension for a time of the 'Thirty Years' War'" (p. 25). The Thirty Years' War began in 1618. Gov. Bradford did not say, as quoted on page 41, "some to saw, some to drive," but, as quoted on p. 44, "some to saw, some to rive." The Massachusetts Company formed in 1627 "meant to make an establishment . . . where men could worship God as they chose, without being under the direction of Archbishop Laud, or of his court of the Star Chamber" (p. 53). Laud's court was the Court of High Commission, and he was not Archbishop till six years later. The "Wishing Stone" on the Boston Common was not (p. 76) below the Walnut Street gate; it was between paths which diverge from below Joy Street to Winter and to West Streets. "Very remarkable personal beauty has for at least a century past been evident in the immediate descendants of her [Anne Hutchinson's] blood" (p. 101). A large number of her direct descendants, including the present writer, have not been co-heirs of this comeliness; but as she is only one of 256 ancestors, they do not hold her responsible, as it may have been some others of the crowd "qui n'étaient pas si bien." It was Winthrop, not Weld, who said of Mrs. Hutchinson (p. 102) "that she had a ready wit and bold spirit." Thomas Hooker went to England and "became Cromwell's chaplain" (p. 117)! The Rev. Thomas Hooker, with Cotton and Davenport, was invited to go over in 1642 to assist in a synod, but he declined to go, was of course never Cromwell's chaplain, and died where he had spent most of his years—at Hartford. "The same earnestness of resolution that led John Cotton to quit his church in Boston, etc." (p. 143). Learned scholars would know what Boston; but the average reader would be helped by the addition of the word "England." At the time of Philip's war, Daniel Denison was indeed appointed commander-in-chief (p. 155), but, because of his illness, Maj. Thomas Savage led the forces. "Capt. Thomas Mosely . . . was a favorite, as he deserved to be, and he enlisted at once a hundred and ten men" (p. 154). We have never read about Capt. Thomas, but Capt. Samuel Mosely was a favorite with his volunteers and with the public, as a brave and skilful officer; he was, however, guilty of cruelty and injustice to the friendly Indians and of insolence and insubordination to his superior officers and to the Council.

"The idea of union for military purposes . . . readily became actual fact in the year 1776" (p. 206). The colonies appointed Washington commander-in-chief in 1775. The Treaty of Utrecht was not (p. 207) "in the year 1712," but in 1713. William Pepperell was of Kittery, not of Jeffery (p. 211), wherever that is. "Of these [Provincial Governors], Phipps, Dudley, and Hutchinson were Massachusetts men" (p. 226). Why leave out Belcher, born in what is now State Street, Boston? "The Earl of Bellomont was the brother of Bishop Burnet, and appointed, perhaps, from deference to his wishes" (p. 227). The previous page states that he was Richard Coote; how then could he be a brother of Bishop Burnet? Bellomont died in 1701, hence could not (p. 226) have been Governor till 1707. Would it not have accorded more with fact to state that Gov. William Burnet, whose lineage has been left untraced, was the son (not brother) of Bishop Burnet? Massachusetts derives her motto not (p. 333) from Philip Sidney, but from Algernon. This is like ascribing Dr. Hale's writings to his granduncle Nathan, "the martyr spy."

The Stamp Act was not (p. 350) in 1763. At the time of the Boston Massacre, the Custom-house was not "on the east side of King Street, now State Street, at the corner of . . . Devonshire Street" (p. 242). It was on the north side of King Street, at the eastern or lower corner of Royal Exchange Lane, now Exchange Street. The meeting of citizens to protest against the continuance of the two regiments in Boston was held in Faneuil Hall in the morning (p. 244), but it was adjourned to the Old South; it was to that old meeting-house that Sam. Adams brought tidings of his victory. "When the tea arrived, a town-meeting was held. . . . When the news of his refusal came the sun had set" (p. 247). The sun had set forty-three times from the first to the last of the eight meetings held upon that subject from November 3 to December 16.

The *Constitution* was "built at Hart's Wharf in Boston in 1796" (p. 312). There was no Hart's Wharf, nor was the *Constitution* built in 1796. The *Constitution* was built on Hartt's ways, and launched September 30, 1797; the ways are now covered by Constitution Wharf. "The commander of the *Constitution* in her first cruise was Isaac Hull" (p. 314). This was July 12, 1812. If the author refers to the first cruise during the war of 1812, this is correct; but in connection with the account of her building, it would mislead. Her first cruise was under Capt. Samuel Nicholson; this was July 20, 1798. "Lafayette visits Massachusetts, 1825" (p. 351). Lafayette visited Massachusetts in 1824, and returned there in 1825.

"General Butler called upon the Governor [Andrew] to say to him that he was sure . . . that it was the intention of the Southern leaders to bring the matter to the arbitrament of war. . . . Northern States should not be unprovided for such an emergency. Acting upon his advice, Governor Andrew sent a message to the Legislature, asking that it might be considered in secrecy, etc., etc., etc." (p. 328). It would be discreditable to any citizen of Massachusetts old enough to see and hear what was going on in 1861 to make this statement; it is positively disgraceful for one who pretends to write history. Early in December, Mr. (not yet Governor) Andrew visited Washington, and personally acquainted himself with the aspect of national affairs, and with the views of representatives of both North and South, and after that the Hon. Charles Francis Adams kept him acquainted, from day to day, with the progress of events; a confidential understanding was established with General Scott, also with Montgomery Blair and Edwin M. Stanton. There was a furious snowstorm on January 5, 1861, the day of his inauguration. Without waiting for it to abate, his first official act, immediately after the inaugural ceremonies, was to despatch a confidential messenger to the Governors of Maine and New Hampshire, to acquaint them with his determination to prepare the active militia of Massachusetts for instant service. The order for this mobilization was issued January 16, the equipments ordered February 6, after a consultation with Gen. Thayer of the United States Engineers and some other officers. A constant communication was kept up with Gen. Scott, who informed the Governor when the troops would probably be sent for, by what routes they should come, and other conditions. Contemporaries attributed these preparatory movements to Gov. Andrew, and blamed and ridiculed him accordingly; they rightly held him responsible, for it was he, and none but he, who took the wise initiative which placed Massachusetts then in the van.

"On the 9th day of April, 1861, Fort Sumter . . . was fired upon. . . . Gov. Andrew instantly issued his proclamation ordering into service the Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Regiments. . . ." It was not on the 9th, but on the 12th of April that Fort Sumter was fired upon. On the 15th, Gov. Andrew received a telegram and subsequently a formal requisition for troops. He immediately (on the 15th) ordered the commanders of the Third, Fourth, Sixth, and Eighth Regiments to muster them forthwith, and the next day he sent the same order to the Fifth Regiment.

"On the 18th of April the Sixth Regiment was mustered on Boston Common in twenty-four hours after the proclamation was issued," which, according to Mr. Hale, was issued on the 9th or 10th, some 200 hours before. The fact is that, not on the 18th, but early in the morning of the 16th, the Third, Fourth, Sixth, and Eighth Regiments reached Boston, and, because of the howling storm, were not mustered on Boston Common, but barracked at once. The Third, Fourth, and Sixth all left in the afternoon of the 17th—the Third and Fourth for Fortress Monroe, by transports selected and held in readiness from the last of

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January; the Sixth for Washington by rail. The Eighth was despatched on the 18th; the Fifth, together with a battalion of rifles and a battery of light artillery, at dawn of the 21st of April.

Mr. Hale's omissions are even worse than his commissions. He condescends, in the opening chapter, to bring "the history of these 270 years [of Massachusetts] . . . together in connected form," and stops short in his summary at April 30, 1789. As, in his 'Man without a Country,' he enforces the jingo doctrine of always following the flag, he makes no mention of the Hartford Convention in connection with the war of 1812, and skips over the Mexican war and Hosea Biglow altogether. His antipathy to the abolitionists makes him silent about the men who set Massachusetts over against South Carolina in the struggle for freedom; about Sumner's beating—a Massachusetts Senator—by a South Carolinian; about John Brown, at one time a citizen of Massachusetts, and finding his chief supporters there. He had previously called George Thompson and Miss Martineau "carpet-baggers," and he now "notes" that "the foreign orators who came from England to instruct us on these subjects were never cordially received," and that "Englishmen had better take care of England, and Americans of America"—a clear apology for the Boston mob of October 21, 1835, directed against Thompson. He will not name a mother's son of the abolitionists, and acknowledges only Mrs. Child as an "anti-slavery prophet." After her, the first name that pops up is that of Mr. Eli Thayer, as was to be expected.

We are dwelling too long on this hodge-podge, from which one would never learn what constitutes the State of Massachusetts. No list of her orators, statesmen, divines, philanthropists, educators, poets. Franklin's statue, Franklin Street, the Franklin School, the Franklin medals, the Franklin fund for loans to mechanics, yield nothing but casual mention of the great Bostonian in the text, and a line relating his birth in the list of "leading events." The Quincy statue, the Quincy School, Quincy Market, do not prompt mention even of the name of the greatest of the mayors. Horace Mann and his statue are ignored. Of Massachusetts's two Presidents, the "old man eloquent" wholly fails to catch Mr. Hale's eye. He can only see Webster opposing the Missouri Compromise, not fastening the Fugitive Slave Law on the country. Arthur Tappan, George Peabody, Dr. Channing, Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Hildreth, Prescott, Parkman—they form no part of the Massachusetts of Mr. Hale; Everett, Emerson, Theodore Parker, Lowell, but an incidental part. John G. Palfrey is thrice quoted—once "on salt-fish dinners"! Harvard College goes unmentioned save in connection with the civil war. Who is there that can lay down this book without applying to the historiographer the Whig clergyman's wind-up to a Democratic Thanksgiving proclamation—"Marcus Morton, Governor—*God save the Commonwealth of Massachusetts!*"

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Stewart Chaplin's treatise on the 'Suspension of the Power of Alienation and Postponement of Vesting, under the Laws of New York, Michigan, Minnesota and Wisconsin' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) deals chiefly, if not altogether, with statutory modifications, in the States mentioned in his title, of what is commonly called the Rule against Perpetuities. The subject should not be confounded with that of restraints on the alienation of *present* interests, the most common example of which is furnished by an income derived from a trust fund for the support of minors which a creditor cannot reach. Everything which ties up property is in a certain sense a restraint on alienation, since it makes it less marketable; but, as pointed out by Prof. Gray, in his valuable works on Perpetuities and Restraints on Alienation, the limitation of future estates does not affect the *power* of disposing of the present interest. What rules against remoteness are intended to effect is the suspension of the power of absolute alienation of the whole fee. During the lives in being of the ordinary rule, or the two lives of the New York statute, the remainder being vested in a minor, the absolute title cannot be conveyed. Something here is clearly in suspense, and in this particular case to call it the power of alienation might not introduce much confusion; but the difficulty is that if the remainder-man is of age, the life-tenant and remainder-man can, by joining, convey the whole fee. It is a curious illustration of the confusion in which the whole subject is involved that there is no common agreement as to what name the rule in question, which, in its various forms, more than any other, governs and limits the modern disposition of property by will, should receive. As a matter of practice, in those States which have adhered as far as possible to the common law, it is probably called most frequently the Rule against Perpetuities, while in those States in which statutory changes have been made it is probably called most often the Suspension of the Power of Alienation.

Mr. Chaplin has collected with great industry into a treatise of some four hundred pages several hundred cases which show the law as it exists in four States of the Union, of which one is, in matters of law and property, the most important of all. An appendix also gives statutes of seven other States. Mr. Chaplin declares, what is perfectly true, that the statutory changes have been of so radical a character as to render inapplicable, in a great degree, the treatises and reports embodying the earlier law. His work has been done with care, and will be found very useful to the practitioner.

The revisers of the New York statutes, some sixty years since, found the common-law rule against perpetuities in full force, and, persuaded that they could improve upon it, introduced the "two lives" rule, saying that "it is presumed that no argument need be advanced in favor of restricting, at least to the extent here proposed, the power of creating perpetuities." The difference between the old rule and the innovation they explained clearly. Entail had been abolished, but, by way of what were known as executory devises, estates might be tied up for a *life or lives in being*, and twenty-one years afterwards (the period of infancy). In this the revisers saw a great danger. By taking a large number of lives, property might be tied up for a very long time. This had actually happened in England. What more simple, then, than to limit the number of lives to two? The change needed, as they said, no argument to support it. And now mark the result. In those States in which the New York change has not been introduced, the imagined danger has never occurred, and the law is plain and intelligible, being developed by the judges on the basis of the old common-law principles. In New York the simple change introduced by the revisers has produced such confusion that it has been said by a good authority that "in no civilized country is the making of a will so delicate an operation, and so likely to fail of success, as in New York." Before the passage of the Revised Statutes, there seems to have been only one case before the courts in which the remoteness of a limitation was called in question. Now we have some two hundred.

It is an old story to lawyers, repeated now from year to year, that every new statute means a new crop of cases, less intelligibility in the law, and more litigation. From the time of the Statute of Frauds to the present day, the imposition by the Legislature of arbitrary rules upon the established legal usages of the community, as formulated by the courts, has been productive of nothing but trouble. The evil has reached its highest pitch in our time, owing to the constantly increasing ignorance of legislatures and the multiplication of statutes; but the history of the "two lives" rule in New York shows how dangerous may be even a very intelligent attempt at arbitrary interference with long-established rules of property. Of course the "two lives" rule was only a part of the changes introduced by the New York revisers. It is the corner-stone, however, of a systematic chaos which has not its counterpart anywhere in the world—the despair of judges and litigants—a "mighty maze," as to the plan of which even text-writers as ingenious and painstaking as Mr. Chaplin can in many places do no more than suggest a doubt.

Prof. Keener's text-book, called 'Selections from Leake's Elements of the Law of Contracts and Finch's Cases on Contracts' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.), is a notable product of the rivalry between two systems of legal education, one known as the "Harvard," the other as the "Dwight" method. These terms are not thoroughly descriptive, but roughly answer the purpose of distinguishing between a system in which decided cases play the first part, and one in which cases are subordinated to the commentary upon them, or are used as illustrations of the general principles from which the judgments in them are deduced. Our own opinion is that neither method of teaching, to the total exclusion of the other, is practicable, and that the opposition between the two, while real enough, is in practice always reconciled by a compromise. To teach law by means of cases alone, without any gloss, commentary, or explanation, is as impossible as it would be to teach astronomy by telling a pupil to lie on his back and gaze at the heavens. He would undoubtedly gain an acquaintance with the appearance of the heavens, but he would not become an astronomer. In the same way he might, by sitting in a chair and reading a collection of leading cases, fill his mind with a vast number of isolated judgments, but he would probably know very little of law. Every professor, no matter whether he adopts the "Harvard" system or not, explains his cases by means of a gloss. That he does not write down and publish his gloss, as Blackstone and Kent did, makes no difference. If law could be taught by means of cases alone, there would be no need of law schools at all. All the cases are to be found in the law libraries.

The truth is, that while historically our law is a series of judgments in particular controversies, every single judgment involves a resort to principles governing human conduct, some moral, others having their foundation in prudence, or convenience, or custom. No doubt the principle of decision is often given in the opinion, but in a great many cases it is not, in a great many others there is a difference of opinion among the judges as to what principle the judgment is to be rested on, while in still

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others the decision turns out, after much discussion, to have been rested on an erroneous principle.

In his selections on contracts, Prof. Keener has coupled with a collection of leading cases a text or gloss made up from two well-known books. It is intended primarily for students, but the practitioner will find it of use as well. Selections of cases as they are usually made up for students are of no use except in the classes of the professor who comments upon them. No one else has the key. Such a book as Mr. Keener's, however, could be used by any one in any place, for purposes of instruction. The only criticism that we have to suggest is, that in another edition the selected cases should have head-notes. These are a great assistance to the student, and in our judgment he should not only be early familiarized with good head-notes, but taught to make head-notes himself, and, by comparing them with properly prepared syllabi, acquire the art of making correct abstracts. Our own experience convinces us that the number of people in the world who can do this well at present is about as large as that of those who can write a good law book.

In bringing out the ninth edition of Story's 'Equity Pleadings,' the industrious editor restored the text of the fourth edition, edited by Charles Sumner, and published three years after the author's death, and corrected and verified all the citations and quotations. In the present edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) Dr. John M. Gould has nearly doubled the number of cases cited, and yet has only slightly increased the size of the book. The shelves of our law libraries are full of books on Courts of Chancery, their pleading, practice, and jurisprudence, but in the long list Story's 'Pleadings' still holds its own. Prof. Langdell's summary of 'Equity Pleading' is designed primarily for students. The last American edition of Daniell's great book appeared in 1879. Foster's 'Federal Practice' deals with the subject as it has been developed in the courts of the United States. A great variety of other books might be referred to which occupy the field in part, but, thanks in great measure to the careful editorial work of Dr. Gould, Story is still the latest American authority on 'Equity Pleadings.'

The National Reporter System, as applied to the United States Digest, began in 1887, and has already proved itself to be indispensably useful. The last gigantic volume of over 5,000 pages of 'The American Digest' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) brings down the decisions of all the courts in the United States for the year to September 1, 1891, while, with the aid of the periodical publications of the system, the lawyer can bring his researches to a much later date. Not only this, but the work is done on a good plan, and well done. Instead of the pages of paragraphs of abstract principles with which digests formerly deluged us—absolutely useless because detached from the facts to which they applied—the American digest has adopted the true principle of always giving the facts as concisely as possible, together with the conclusion reached by the court.

This is the twenty-second year of Hubbell's 'Legal Directory' (New York: Hubbell Legal Directory Co.), whose reputation is well established. Its chief rival is Story's 'Legal Digest and Directory,' but Hubbell's revision is the later of the two; so far as we have had occasion to consult them, they are equally trustworthy. One of their functions is that of serving as intermediary between lawyer and client. Mr. Hubbell has a list of "able and trustworthy attorneys" in the United States and Canada, compiled "from information obtained by our representatives," who are "constantly travelling through the country for the purpose of investigating the professional standing of attorneys," as also "by correspondence with more than 50,000 presidents or cashiers of banks, bankers, or leading merchants." But note, as the old books say, that in corresponding even with such attorneys as these it is best to "sign yourselves as subscribers to Hubbell." Over two hundred pages of "cards" testify powerfully to the declining influence of the old prejudice against professional advertising.

STONEWALL JACKSON.

Life and Letters of Gen. Thomas J. Jackson (Stonewall Jackson). By his Wife, Mary Anna Jackson. Harper & Bros. 12mo, pp. xviii., 479. Illustrated.

WHAT would appear a too free disclosure of domestic life in the case of a private person becomes a welcome aid to our completer knowledge and appreciation of a distinguished man. We cannot understand history except by knowing the characters who make history. Their public career is determined by the intimate and often hidden traits of private character. We feel the need of knowing them as a friend living by their side might know them, before we can form any adequate judgment of their conduct in the great events wherein they play their part. For these reasons everybody who feels true interest in the history of our civil war will be thankful to Jackson's widow that she has let us see with so little reserve the character and the life of the great Confederate soldier as it was revealed in the bosom of his family.

Mrs. Jackson does not pretend to tell us anything of her husband's campaigns, making only such references to them as are necessary to connect the letters which form the bulk of the volume. It is a fact worth knowing, however, that his habitual reticence as to his plans extended even to his wife, and that she knew little more than the rest of the world as to his purposes, his hopes, and his ambitions.

The memoir corrects, to some extent at least, the popular notion that Jackson was careless in dress and in regard to his person. He is described as a well set-up soldier, erect, neat in dress, scrupulous in cleanliness, and erring, if at all, on the side of over-precision in bearing and address. In war service his rigid conscientiousness in sharing the discomforts of his soldiers, especially in reducing baggage, made his uniform and equipments show hard usage, for he did not allow himself a change of exterior clothing. He had been a good horseman from his childhood, and his service in the artillery during the Mexican war had kept him in good form as a mounted officer. His habit of religious reverie and silent prayer when on the march is well established, and this no doubt made him neglectful of his seat on horseback when he forgot himself at the head of a plodding column. Absorbed in thought, his weary body might naturally settle into a collapsed and ungraceful form till aroused by some excitement or otherwise recalled to a sense of his forgetfulness.

It is not hard to see that even in the intensity of his religious life he was masterful and disposed to make his conscience the law for others; not in an offensive way, but by force of a strong will moved by convictions which made it a duty to exhort all about him to accept his standard of right. This is amusingly shown in his sabbatarian notions. He conceived it wrong to accept the use of the public post on Sunday, and would not write letters on days that would cause them to travel on Sunday, unless the whole journey were longer than a week. He would, in such cases, delay writing till Monday, having faith in a providential overruling of any mischief that might come from waiting. He applied the rule even to his correspondence with the lady to whom he was betrothed, and induced her also to act upon it.

He found a curious case of conscience, however, when, in his Valley campaign, he saw an opportunity to gain a military advantage by taking the aggressive and beginning a battle on Sunday. McClellan adopted a rule that he would not take the offensive on Sunday if the enemy observed the *status quo*; but Jackson, though grievously troubled, determined upon an attack, and seems to have followed it up for several Sundays running. His argument shows how easily men lose themselves in the mazes of casuistry. He wrote home deploring the fact, but says, "I believed that so far as our troops were concerned, necessity and mercy both called for the battle," "and this fact of its being necessary to success," he adds, "and being accompanied with success, and that a departure from it is accompanied with disaster, suggests that it must be right!" It is hard, even for a Puritan, to make war and religion entirely agree; but whatever may be the logic of Jackson's casuistry, there is no doubt of the soundness of his military ideas. Himself no slavery propagandist, he had performed the intellectual feat of persuading himself that the cause of the nationalizing of human slavery was God's cause, that the end justified the means, and therefore that success proved the righteousness of beginning a bloody battle in so good a cause on the Lord's day! Thoughtful people have long shrunk from the confident appeal to "the God of battles," and the confident conclusion that the result of war is the direct expression of a divine judgment; but what must such a mind and conscience as Jackson's have thought of his own argument, could he have seen the end of the struggle and the result to his cause and to himself?

Jackson's reputation as a soldier was made in secondary campaigns or in subordinate places in capital ones. His career has a strong likeness to that of Sheridan. Both had brilliant success in command in the Shenandoah Valley, both were looked upon as the right arm of their commanders in the great armies in front of Richmond. As to both it is necessarily an open question whether they would have succeeded if the burden of supreme responsibility had been cast upon them. In Jackson's case some light may be found in an interview with his brother-in-law, Col. Barringer of North Carolina, which Mrs. Jackson incorporates in her memoir. In this, Jackson is represented as saying that he had been in favor of raising the "black flag" at the beginning of the war, and meeting invasion by the policy of "no quarter to the violators of our homes and firesides." The time of the conversation was immediately after the issue of Pope's famous orders in regard to the conduct of the campaign of 1862. Jackson insisted that his original policy of "no quarter" should then be openly adopted. It is among the possibilities that a man of Jackson's fibre might have executed such a policy for a while, thinking he was fulfilling an order to "hew Agag in pieces before the Lord"; but one

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prefers to think the humanity of the nineteenth century of the Christian era would have got the upper hand in a Christian man, and that slaughtering surrendered men of his own race would not have been as possible in practice as it seemed in theory. To accept it even in theory indicates a lack of the poise necessary for the commander-in-chief of a great army.

In the same conversation Jackson gave his ideas of a plan of campaign, which consisted in organizing the whole available fighting force into several "light movable columns." He would "hurl these thunderbolts of war against the rich cities and teeming regions" of the North, operating upon points "possibly hundreds of miles away, . . . all the way to Kansas." "These counter-invasions would be the main feature of my policy." It is hardly credible that a soldier of Jackson's intelligence and experience could have expected success from such subdivision of forces and such a scheme of scattered and distant raids. When we reflect that one of these "movable columns" in the heart of a Northern State would be travelling upon foot without communications, while the national armies could have the benefit of railways and telegraphs in concentrating, it would be hard to devise a more certain way of bringing each to grief, as John Morgan's flying column of horsemen came to grief when they were once committed to a traverse of the State of Ohio. If Jackson is rightly reported, it is well for his military fame that Lee planned the occasions on which to use his "thunderbolt of war."

In these pages the man stands out as an enthusiast in religion and in the secession cause. He was evidently warm in his personal affections, also, though very shy of exhibiting them publicly. Autocratic in temperament, he meant to rule for the good of his subjects, whether in his family or in his army; but he could hardly imagine that anything could be for their good except what seemed so to him. Thus he imposed his will on others, even on those he most loved, and could ill bear a divided command in public or in private. Add to this a personal courage of a high order, exalted almost if not quite to fanaticism by his religious enthusiasm, and it would be hard to find qualities better adapted to make a great soldier in all positions short of the highest. If we doubt whether he could have filled Lee's place, it is because his self-revelation does not indicate the highest or the broadest style of practical intellect.

Mrs. Jackson's editing is faultlessly done. Having decided to show something of the inner character of her hero, she never slips in taste, in modesty, or in the nice sense of the limits of reasonable disclosure. She indulges in no vituperation and in no needless laments over the lost cause. She is partisan only so far as loyalty to her husband and his cause demands. She falls into the common error of attributing to Gen. Pope an imaginary order from "headquarters in the saddle," and that myth will probably be immortal, though the revelation of Jackson's earlier "black flag" policy would seem to make criticism of Pope a little superfluous. The book is handsomely uniformed in Confederate gray, with the lieutenant-general's wreath, stars, and sleeve-knot upon the cover.

The Platform: Its Rise and Progress. By Henry Jephson. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1892.

To the American reader the title of this book does not suggest its subject. What Mr. Jephson aims to describe is not the history of the declaration of political principles by party conventions, but the growth of the habit of oral political discussion in England. According to his definition, "every political speech at a public meeting, excluding those from the pulpit and those in courts of justice, comes within the meaning of 'The Platform.'" It should be added that only discussion outside Parliament is meant. This habit Mr. Jephson properly regards as a political institution of recent development, although it is, perhaps, going too far to say that a century and a half ago there were only three great political institutions in England, the Crown, the Lords, and the Commons. It is certainly paradoxical to maintain that there was no public political discussion during such thrilling periods as that of the Reformation and of the prolonged struggle against the arbitrary government of the Stuarts. Doubtless much of this discussion took place in the pulpit, but it was none the less political because it was religious. Religion and politics were inseparable in those days, and Mr. Jephson's definition seems to us somewhat arbitrary in its exclusions.

This objection would be more serious had Mr. Jephson formed a different conception of the manner in which the history of the rise of an institution is to be traced. We think we do him no injustice in pronouncing him distinctly *not* a philosophic historian. His method is perfectly simple: he has industriously searched among records of all kinds for reports of meetings at which political discussion took place, and has entered them in his chronicle, frequently including long extracts from the speeches made on these occasions. As a result his book is swollen to over 900 pages, whereby, we apprehend, the number of his readers will be reduced to one-fourth of what it might have been. This is to be regretted, for Mr. Jephson had a subject of which much might have been made, and his failure to make the best of it is not at all due to any lack of exertion on his part. Even as it is, his comments upon the steady growth of freedom of speech are frequently judicious, and it is possible—through much skipping—to get from his pages a tolerably vivid picture of the steps by which this liberty advanced.

According to the view here taken, political activity in England, outside the ruling class, dates from about the middle of the eighteenth century. At a time when contested elections were comparatively rare, the voice of the people was occasionally heard in petitions originating in public meetings; but although the right of petition was secured by the Bill of Rights, that of meeting was practically controlled by the aristocracy. In fact, petitions almost always began — "We, the High Sheriff, noblemen, gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders." But it is the glory of England that there have always been members of the aristocracy ready to withstand not only the Crown, but their own order, when popular rights were invaded. Naturally enough, it was at the hustings that complaints of misgovernment were most clearly expressed, and the Wilkes episode, which is fully narrated by Mr. Jephson, may be said to have definitely established the right of free speech. Although little was formally conceded, a temper had been revealed that warned the Government of the danger of revolution if it persisted in its arbitrary course.

What had been won was apparently lost in consequence of the alarm caused by the excesses of the French Revolution. A small faction in England looked with pleasure upon the overthrow of monarchical government, but public sentiment was overwhelmingly against them. Reform was one thing, but revolution was another. It was accordingly easy for Government to proceed vigorously against agitators, and for many years political meetings, both public and private, were severely suppressed. After peace was restored, the harsh measures of the Government and the arbitrary decisions of the courts again aroused the spirit of liberty, and the massacre of Peterloo was such an anachronism as to make the demand for the right of free speech irresistible. The passage of the Reform Bill marked the termination of the era of repression, and after that great struggle the story of the platform becomes comparatively tame.

In our judgment Mr. Jephson would have done well if he had stopped with the winning of this victory, and yet it is not surprising that he was tempted to point out the manner in which the victory was improved. He evidently leans to the view that measures of government should really emanate from the people, their representatives being chosen merely to register their will. But this is a subject by itself, and requires for its treatment somewhat different qualifications from those displayed by Mr. Jephson. So long as freedom of speech was denied, it was an end in itself; when the right was established, it became a means to the attainment of other ends. To enumerate all the ends that may be attained in this way is an undertaking too comprehensive for a single work. But however this may be, we need not hesitate to thank the author of this book for the materials that he has so industriously accumulated.

East Coast Yarns. By P. H. Emerson. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

MR. EMERSON'S 'Pictures of East Anglian Life' were so fresh and so suggestive that the reader will naturally look for the same qualities in 'East Coast Yarns,' and we fear that he will be disappointed. Although Mr. Kipling's success has brought short stories into vogue, it has not made the writing of them any easier. It is one of the necessities of the case that the reader shall be introduced to a succession of kaleidoscopic pictures having little or no connection with each other. If the writer possesses exceptional skill, he can, in a dozen pages, paint his picture in such striking colors that it remains fixed in the memory, and cannot be easily displaced by what follows. But, unfortunately, such skill is rarer than the black swan of the Latin grammar, and Mr. Emerson is not among the happy possessors thereof. The first and most ambitious story in this volume, "The Wreck of the Asia," has nothing to do with the East Coast, being, in fact, an account of a shipwreck on the coast of Wales. Its incidents are neither striking nor dramatic. A number of characters are introduced, and rather carefully labelled and catalogued, without any sufficient motive in the story to warrant the mental effort on the part of the reader to differentiate them. Some of the shorter sketches are decidedly more lifelike and have a distinctly East Coast flavor, but on the whole the collection must be pronounced unsatisfactory.

The Government of Dependencies. By Sir George Cornewall Lewis, K.C.B. Edited with an Introduction by C. P. Lucas. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. lxviii, 392.

The Government of Victoria (Australia). By Edward Jenks, Dean of the Faculty of Law

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in the University of Melbourne. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xliv, 403.

THESE two books may be said to give us the theory and the practice of England in governing dependencies. Lewis's treatise is an analytical and philosophical discussion of the fundamentals of government and of dependencies, and of the relation between the principles and the objects of their exercise when found in colonies and provinces. He treats the subject somewhat after the manner of Locke and Montesquieu, developing the logical connection of a principle and its application to particular real or supposed cases, and trying thus to draw, *a priori*, the lines of limitation between the practicable and the impracticable, the probably successful and unsuccessful. Mr. Lucas, the editor, has written a long and valuable introductory chapter, showing the actual development of colonial government since Lewis's death, and the practical success of steps which the original author could hardly accept as possible. Lewis enriched his treatise with abundant references to the history of his subject in ancient and modern times, so that his notes are a classical repertory of its literature.

Mr. Jenks's book is at the opposite pole in its treatment of colonial dependence. His is an historical digest of the laws under which the progress of the little settlement of Port Philip in New South Wales was guided, from the time when a few English settlers from New Zealand landed there till it has grown into a great State with responsible government. It began as a little dependency under the almost absolute sway of the Governor of New South Wales; it passed through a crisis of separation, and now, at the end of little more than half a century, is independent in everything but the name, and is working out the most complicated social and political problems with an enterprise and an initiative force and fertility which fasten the attention of the world. Those who will read these books together will be greatly struck with the way in which a new and raw community grapples with and overcomes difficulties in the way of governmental progress which Lewis, the wise and philosophical conservative statesman, looked upon as insuperable. Such readers will also be apt to conclude that the success could have been achieved only by a community in which the genius for representative institutions had become hereditary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Capt. L. Among Typhoons and Pirate Craft. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bell, Malcolm. Was She Wife or Widow? Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Beesly, E. S. Queen Elizabeth. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Black, William. The Strange Adventures of a Phaeton. Harpers. $1.
Blomfield, R., and Thomas, F. I. The Formal Garden in England. Macmillan. $3.00.
Bourinot, J. G. Parliamentary Procedure and Practice. 2d ed. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Brücke, Ernst. The Human Figure: its Beauties and Defects. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Westermann.
Buckley, Arabella B. Moral Teachings of Science. Appletons.
Bullen, A. H. Lyrics from the Dramatists of the Elizabethan Age. Scribners. $1.50.
Calverley, C. S. Literary Remains. 3d ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Calverley, C. S. Theocritus Translated into English Verse. 3d ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Carter, Franklin. Mark Hopkins. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cowperthwait, J. H. Money, Silver and Finance. Putnams. $1.25.
Creasy, Sir E. The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World. Harpers.
Daly, Augustin. Woffington. 2d edition. Troy: Nims & Knight.
Daly, J. B. The Dawn of Radicalism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.

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